

CALIFORNIA JOURNAL OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

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CALIFORNIA JOURNAL OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

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EDITORIAL COMMENT AND NEWS NOTES

A CONTRIBUTION FROM THE WORK OF MRS. SUE L. FRATIS

In this issue of the *Journal*, an article by Dr. Bernice Baxter, Director of Instruction in Elementary and Junior High Schools, Oakland, appears under the title, "Trends in Placement of Topics in Arithmetic." In presenting this article, Dr. Baxter was anxious to give credit to the contribution of the late Mrs. Sue L. Fratis to the Oakland curriculum studies in arithmetic.

Prior to 1935, while a member of the Curriculum Council, Mrs. Fratis advocated the need of utilizing the results of recent research in arithmetic as a basis for the reorganization of the course of study in arithmetic. The Curriculum Council encouraged Mrs. Fratis to give the problem intensive study with the result that nine bulletins which analyzed various phases of the problem were prepared by Mrs. Fratis and distributed to the elementary school teachers for consideration.

In the fall of 1935, a committee was appointed to prepare curriculum recommendations. Mrs. Fratis served as chairman of the committee. Richard W. Kretsinger, Principal, Lincoln School, Charles C. Grover, Principal of Glenview and Montclair Schools, and Dr. Bernice Baxter were members of the committee.

The principals on the committee carried on experimental studies in their respective schools. The committee met regularly over a two-year period to consider the professional literature and the results of their own investigations. Committees were formed from the teachers in these schools and as a result of careful classroom experimentation, the recommendations incorporated in the final report were made.

The intensive study of arithmetic in the elementary school curriculum terminated the long and creditable professional service of Mrs. Fratis to the Oakland Public Schools. She was not only an active and appreciated member of the school department but a tireless worker in innumerable activities for social and civic betterment.

The *California Journal of Elementary Education* is deeply appreciative to Dr. Bernice Baxter for making available to the elementary school workers of California this last contribution to the educational welfare of children from one of our widely known and respected elementary school principals.

STORIES OF SAN MATEO COUNTY

Eleanor Freeman, Director of Curriculum, San Mateo County, has just published a most attractive book for children under the title, *Stories of San Mateo County*.

The romantic history of this beautiful and interesting county from the colorful days of long ago to the present has been written in simple and direct style for children of the middle grades in the elementary school. The nineteen full-page illustrations are unusually lovely and add greatly to the interest and attractiveness of the book.

Copies of this publication are not for sale but will be placed in school libraries of San Mateo County so that children for whom the book was written will have the benefit of the author's careful and extensive research.

MAGAZINE OF CHILDREN'S VERSE

Acceptable poems written by children under sixteen years of age are printed bimonthly in *Nuggets*, a small but interesting magazine published by Nina Willis Walter, 709 N. Monterey Street, Alhambra, California. Manuscripts submitted to *Nuggets* must bear the name, age, grade and school of the author. A stamped and addressed envelope should be enclosed if the return of a manuscript is desired.

Many California teachers may wish to encourage children in creative expression by sending in bits of their verse to Mrs. Walter for consideration.

NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP MEETING, HAWAII

The Pacific Conference of the New Education Fellowship will be held in Honolulu at the University of Hawaii, June 19-25, 1938.

This international organization whose membership extends around the world, offers a means for exchanging information about advances in education among educational pioneers in various countries. This is the sole purpose of the organization. The members come together to deepen their understanding of education and its relation to social change.

The theme of this summer's conference is "Education for Democracy in a World at Conflict," a topic that, at this time, interests all nations bordering on the Pacific. Educational leaders from all parts of the world will participate. The program will offer a series of study conferences under the guidance of these national leaders, as well as general assemblies, and forum discussions.

Information about sailings, costs and the like may be obtained from the Progressive Education Association, 310 West 90th Street, New York City.

DEMONSTRATION ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

The School of Education of the University of California will conduct a demonstration elementary school during the Summer Session of 1938. Sessions will be held daily, Monday through Friday, 9 a.m. to 12 m., from June 27 to August 5. Through an arrangement with the Berkeley Board of Education, the work will be carried on in the Hillside School, corner of Le Roy and Buena Vista Avenue.

Dr. John A. Hockett, Assistant Professor of Education, will head the staff as director. Miss Helen Heffernan, Chief, Division of Elementary Education and Rural Schools, is to be the associate director, and Mrs. Gladys L. Potter, Assistant Chief, will act as principal.

Selected teachers will exemplify modern principles of education in carrying on an integrated program of educative activities and experiences for children in grades one to eight and in an ungraded group.

Enrollment is limited to thirty pupils in each group. Applications for admission should be addressed to Dr. Hockett, Haviland Hall, University of California, Berkeley, California, who will consider the applications in the order in which they are received.

Final registration will take place at the Demonstration School on Monday, June 27, from 8:30 a.m. to 12 m.

The fee for each pupil is \$7.50 for the six weeks' session, which must be paid on June 27. Checks should be made payable to The Regents of the University of California. Places cannot be held after registration day, unless the fee is paid.

NEW FORESTRY BULLETINS

The Forestry Service of the United States Department of Agriculture has issued two new bulletins under date of February, 1938. These bulletins *What Forests Give* and *Taming Our Forests* are of particular value for use with upper grade and junior high school pupils. They are simply written and contain a wealth of usable, interesting material.

What Forests Give tells the story of the wide variety of products secured from the forests. Because of the work of the chemist these "now include benzine, gasoline, acetone, alcohols, turpentine, cellulose, and sugar." In the opinion of chemists now engaged in research on wood products, the possibilities of new uses of wood are only beginning to be explored. This bulletin also presents the relation of forests to erosion and floods and the importance of forests.

In a recent letter Assistant Regional Forester W. I. Hutchinson says that there are at the present time only a few hundred copies available for distribution. It is suggested that schools interested in securing library copies of these materials address their requests directly

to W. I. Hutchinson, Assistant Regional Forester, 760 Market Street, San Francisco.

THE WEST COAST SCHOOL OF NATURE STUDY

The West Coast School of Nature Study, contribution of the San Jose State College natural science department to better science education in the elementary schools of California, will hold its sessions this summer in Yosemite National Park and in Asilomar on the Monterey Peninsula.

This unique outdoor school has no classrooms, books, or examinations. The students attending the school are divided into trail groups under the leadership of five instructors, each a specialist in some phase of natural science. Accommodations may be secured at special rates in excellent inns or lodges in the region.

The instructional staff of the West Coast School is headed by Dr. P. Victor Peterson, chairman of the natural science department of San Jose State College, and includes Fred E. Buss, geologist and physiographer; Dr. Carl Duncan, entomologist; Dr. Karl Hazeltine, natural science specialist; Dr. Gayle Pickwell, ornithologist; Emily Smith, botanist. Gertrude Witherspoon is registrar and financial secretary. Two units of college credit are offered for each week of attendance at the West Coast School.

The tuition for a week's attendance at the West Coast School of Nature Study is \$12.00. The school will hold its first two sessions in Yosemite Valley from June 18 to 25, and from June 25 to July 2, 1938, and the final session at Asilomar from July 4 to July 10, 1938.

Further information may be secured by writing to Dr. P. Victor Peterson, San Jose State College, San Jose, California.

SANTA BARBARA SCHOOL OF NATURE STUDY

Santa Barbara State College announces a summer session course in nature study for the two weeks, August 8 to 19. Investigation of the students will center about the Natural History Museum and the Blaksley Botanic Gardens in Mission Canyon, the foothills of the Santa Ynez Mountains, the Los Padres National Forest, and Laguna Blanca Bird Refuge. Courses ranging from astronomy to art activities and desert life have been arranged. Two semester units of undergraduate credit at Santa Barbara State College will be granted for study during the session. Tuition is six dollars a unit with no extra assessments, special fees, or charges of any kind. Applications, accompanied by one dollar, should be sent to Harrington Wells, Director of the Santa Barbara School of Nature Study, Santa Barbara State College, Santa Barbara.

BASIC PHILOSOPHY FOR EDUCATION DURING EARLY ADOLESCENCE¹

[This statement of "Basic Educational Philosophy" has been prepared for inclusion in Teachers' Guide to Development in Early Adolescence, a volume being compiled by a state committee under the general direction of the California State Curriculum Commission for publication by the State Department of Education. It has been approved by the northern and southern sections of the committee and is presented in this form for reactions from elementary school and junior high school teachers and principals.

California elementary school principals are requested to discuss the statement in meetings of their seventh and eighth grade teachers and send a report of their reactions to the Division of Elementary Education and Rural Schools before June 1, 1938.]

CONTINUITY IN EDUCATION DEMANDS HARMONIOUS BASIC GUIDING PRINCIPLES

*The Teachers' Guide to Child Development in the Intermediate Grades,*² endorses Dewey's point of view that education is life; education is growth; education is a social process; and education is a continuous reconstruction of experience. Consequently, if the education of the boys and girls who attend the early years of the secondary school is to be a "continuous unitary process," then the basic guiding principles of elementary and beginning secondary school must be harmonious. "To learn to live one's daily life well" is as important for early adolescence as for childhood. The school must help all the boys and girls who enter from the earlier units of the school system to find increasingly effective means for meeting their life situations, individually and collectively. It is the responsibility of the school to take each child at the point of development he has reached and guide his further development toward desired social ends.

DEMOCRATIC THEORY OF LIFE IS BASIC TO DEMOCRATIC EDUCATION

The democratic theory of life is fundamental to educational procedure in a democracy. Life is progressive; goals set up by any group are to be regarded as only temporarily projected termini arising out of ever-changing episodes of experience. As one episode of

¹ Prepared by a subcommittee of the State Committee on Teachers' Guide to Development in Early Adolescence: Alice Ball Struthers, Principal, Thomas Starr King Junior High School, Los Angeles, Chairman; George N. Hale, District Superintendent of Schools, Azusa; Marion E. Herriott, Principal, Central Junior High School, Los Angeles; Mrs. Frances Judkins, Principal, Pismo Beach Elementary School; and Verlin Spencer, Principal, South Pasadena Junior High School.

² *Teachers' Guide to Child Development in the Intermediate Grades.* Compiled by State Curriculum Commission. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1936. Chapter I, Point of View. Ethel Percy Andrus; William Featherstone; and Alice Ball Struthers, "What We Believe About Education." (Unpublished manuscript.)

experience gives way to, and merges with, another succeeding one and the whole of experience is thus enlarged in scope and deepened in understanding, so must the tentative goals which are set up as our ideals give way to an enlarged and perfected projection into the future of a richer and fuller experience. Change is essential for the democratic way of life. Fixed, absolute, and imposed ends for education are not feasible in a democratic society. However, the school and the society which supports it must recognize temporary common aims toward which to direct their energies in the education of youth.

IDEALS OF DEMOCRACY UNIFY EDUCATIONAL AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

Society is only as enlightened as the individual members who compose it. Democratic schools are concerned with the best growth and development of every member of its population in order that its group life may deal effectively with its major social problems. Education should afford all the people opportunity to develop as fully as their varying capacities, interests, and abilities will permit in the interests of discovering new and better ways of adapting and controlling environmental conditions for more satisfactory and richer individual life and improvement in social relationships.

A conviction on the part of educators that a democratic society is more than a form of government; that it is a mode of associated living; that it is a plan of conjoint communicated experience; that it means sharing; that it endorses cooperation and friendly living together; that it seeks to make "provision for participation in its good of all its members on equal terms;" that it strives to secure "flexible readjustment of its institutions through interaction of the different forms of associated life;" that it means voluntary choice; that it seeks to give individuals a personal interest in social relationships and control, and to assure for all the habits of mind which secure social changes without introducing disorder; these convictions, will undoubtedly unify the aims and objectives of all educational specifics.¹ A sincere striving for the realization of these principles is the surest promise of real social progress.

THE SCHOOL MUST ADAPT LEARNING EXPERIENCES TO THE WIDE RANGE OF INDIVIDUAL VARIATION

If the democratic theory of life is sound, although the great variability of needs, aptitudes, and interests of early adolescence in a program of universal education complicates the problem from the

¹ John Dewey, "Education and Social Change," *The Social Frontier*, 111 (May, 1937), 235

standpoint of financial support and curricula, the school must adapt its program to the complete range of unselected educable youth. The worth of each member of the school population and all types of constructive endeavor must be respected.

No greater problem faces the new school than to provide differentiated experiences to meet the needs of all who go to school. An enlightened public is essential before sufficient funds will be made available to render these multiple services.

THE NEEDS AND INTERESTS OF EARLY ADOLESCENCE ARE BASIC TO SOUND EDUCATION

To discover the fundamental and major needs and interests of early adolescence is a first task in a program for the improvement of early youth's education. Many surveys for this purpose have been made, and lists of needs, interests, and problems have been presented.¹ All reliable investigations should be studied, but it is most essential that local investigation with expert interpretation be made and the results applied to the immediate situations. There is no research that has more to offer for the improvement of educational procedures than that which reveals the significant interests and needs of youth.

The following contribution is pertinent to this discussion:

Whatever we discover by concerted thought and cooperative effort can be clarified by wise leadership but it must also commend itself to the intelligence of the individual teacher and must be translated by her into such action as may be consistent with her individual ability in her particular situation.

Even at this point we realize that curriculum trends are resultants of exceedingly complex interrelated factors. We must not only recognize them but must explore the implications of their relatedness. No single area of specialization can produce the expertness needed for dealing intelligently with the situation. That is why the task challenges cooperative endeavor.

Even at this stage of our investigation and experience we cannot escape the realization that the very foundations on which the whole structure of education must be built are also moving, and that the concept of relativity

¹ William B. Brown, "Studies of Adolescent Needs and Interests," Secondary Curriculum Department, Los Angeles City Schools, Circular 67-58 (May 20, 1937).

Harl R. Douglass, *Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1937.

D. L. Harley, *Surveys of Youth*. American Council on Education, American Youth Commission, Series IV, I (September, 1937).

L. Thomas Hopkins, and others, *Integration, Its Meaning and Application*. New York: Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1937.

F. J. Kelly, *Youth's Most Urgent Problems*. United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, January 20, 1936. Washington: United States Government Printing Office.

Daniel A. Prescott, *Emotion and the Educative Process*, American Council on Education, Washington: January, 1938.

Herbert R. Stoltz, and Others, "The Junior High School Age," *University High School Journal* XVI (January, 1937), 67-72.

Homer P. Rainey, *The Care and Education of American Youth*. Washington: The American Council on Education, 1937.

Homer P. Rainey, and others, *How Fare American Youth?* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1937.

and flux which has transformed physics, biology, and other basic sciences has no slight bearing on the basic concepts of sociology, psychology, and education.¹

YOUTH GROWS AS HE GRAPPLES WITH LIFE SITUATIONS

The school is concerned with the whole child. An individual is an organic unity. His learnings are experienced simultaneously. Mental, emotional, physical, and social activities are not experienced separately but as aspects of an entity, an organic whole. The pupil thus considered is not an organism in isolation or in a vacuum; he exists in an environment—a whole social situation. There must be an interactive relationship: the whole situation educates the whole being.

Learning is a creative thing; learning is new life and involves the reaction of the whole living organism with the whole environmental situation. Teaching and guidance are inseparable; guidance is an aspect of all teaching. Learning is an ever-changing, modifying, reorganizing, growing, expanding, creative process. Every constructive learning act results in power, in achievement for the organism. Youth grows as he grapples with worthy life situations.

As youth grapples with situations that are constructive in nature and are accepted by him as purposeful and meaningful, he enters into his experiences with eagerness, earnestness, and integrity. As expressions of integrity are multiplied and as they become the way of doing, a growing gestalt or structure of integrity is the anticipated outcome. Participation in worth-while activities, that youth chooses or accepts under wise adult guidance, contributes to integrated personality and social development. To the extent, that a curriculum based on the genuine interests or voluntarily accepted ideals of youth is developed, to that degree is a functioning character education program continually evolving.

DETAILED PRESCRIBED CONTENT AND SPECIFIC MATERIALS ARE NOT CONSISTENT WITH CREATIVE EDUCATION

The acceptance of education as life forbids prescribed content for curricula. Specific materials for definite placement can not be predicted. Basic principles and broad areas of life activities or major areas of human experience; social-civic-science, communication skills and literature, fine and applied arts, health, and recreation, and explorations into the multiple areas of interest may be indicated. Successful practices of others and experimentation may be revealing, but the specifics of educational activities must be determined in the

¹ Laura Zirbes, *Curriculum Trends*.
Quoted by permission of the publishers.

Washington: Association for Childhood Education, 1935, p. 38.

separate learning situations as the evolving processes unfold. It is not sufficient merely to modify the old, or to add new subjects, or to reorganize in order that best results may be achieved. We must make a new approach. We need much experimentation and invention before the dynamic democratic theory of life can be fully applied to educational practices.

EDUCATION MUST PROVIDE YOUTH WITH CONDITIONS FOR A HEALTHY SATISFACTION OF INSISTENT HUMAN IMPULSES AND SOCIAL DRIVES

The school must recognize all the dominant life needs of its population for all periods of growth. Although there are no sudden or saltatory changes in natural growth and development, there are certain important characteristics that mark the period of life between puberty and adulthood designated as adolescence.

Physiologically, puberty indicates a preparation for mating and reproduction; psychologically it turns youth from his childish interest in self and dependence on adults; and socially it marks an introduction to the opportunity and responsibility of maturity.

It is generally recognized that all people strive for security, for recognition, for companionship and friendships with the same and the opposite sex, and for adventure. Early adolescence has the central drives common to humanity which form the genetic-dynamic core of personality. For normal development these energies must be guided into wholesome expression. When abnormal or critical aspects are apparent at this time, accumulating evidence attributes the cause to poor mental and physical hygiene carrying over from childhood. All units of the school system must share in giving recognition to the common human urges and in assuming the common responsibility of integration, diversification, exploration, guidance, and attention to individual differences. It is desirable, although not always feasible, to have a unit of organization in the school system which takes cognizance in its program of natural development due to maturation. The school, irrespective of housing conditions or form of organization, should furnish the essential social matrix and opportunities for continuity in the developmental trends of adolescence with the healthy satisfaction of the insistent human impulses.

YOUTH MUST HAVE OPPORTUNITY TO EXPERIENCE IN EVER-INCREASING MEASURE

The school should make it possible for the child to reorganize continuously his outlook or way of life. This reorganization necessitates that boys and girls have wide and varied experience. "Experi-

ence is the name given to the great natural and social theatre in which the human drama is enacted, together with the whole scope and content of the drama itself."¹ The scope of the program should be as broad as life, but for harmonious continuity in growth, youth must experience life itself at his own maturity level.

A paramount aspect of this experiencing is growth in ability to think independently. Indoctrination, assignment, reproduction, and authoritarian dictation tend to interfere with this process. When education is defined as *growth*, creative expression and the scientific method are advocated. Youth is encouraged to read widely, consult authorities, make visits, take excursions, confer with those of wisdom; he is encouraged to think, and to meet life situations which involve judgment, discrimination, critical analysis, and drawing tentative conclusions. Appreciation of the privileges and responsibilities of the present is derived from examination and a participation in contemporary life activities. These experiences may be illuminated through information and a critical understanding of aspirations, ambitions, sacrifices, and problems of civilization through the ages. The cultural and scientific heritage of the past has value and meaning as it enables youth to interpret, participate, control, and reconstruct his own experience in better ways and to modify his living conditions. The scientific approach is the creative approach. Critical thinking in meeting situations develops power for the democratic way of life.

In order to meet adequately new situations, in an increasingly complex and constantly changing world where life situations are continually emerging in new patterns, youth must become intelligently self-directive by making choices for action in terms of the consequences to be reasonably expected from alternative courses open to him. Youth, however, needs adult cooperation and guidance to help him in sensing values and in choosing between conflicting interests. A major responsibility of the school is, then, to simplify situations so that youth will not be confused and confounded by the many facets of present-day civilization which to him may be quite unrelated and often distorted. He must have help in the discovery of relationships. Youth will become increasingly self-directive and a more responsible member of society if, in making his choices, he is continually guided in the awareness of new meanings, of more possible consequences of his actions, and of better ways of meeting situations.

The scientific method contributes to social progress. The power of critical insight is needed to question things as they are and to combat the influence of unwholesome and subversive propaganda. Critical

¹ Max C. Otto, "Philosopher of a New Age," *The Social Frontier*, III (May, 1937), 231.

insight is the constructive force for the building of finer individual life and a better world.

YOUTH'S INTERESTS ARE SIGNS OF INNER POWER

The significance of a psychological sequence for effective learning is paramount. A psychological sequence implies that desirable educational outcomes result more dynamically when school activities coincide with the major, constructive, social interests and felt needs of youth. The learning experiences must be as varied as the demands of the school population in all types of communities. Opportunity for all to find ways to increase effective living must be afforded. When educational organization and procedures are built upon the characteristic needs of the school population, satisfaction will accompany the youth's progress; and accepted values, immediate or deferred, will be more readily recognized.

The individual aspect of education can not be isolated from the social, for the social aspect of the environment is dominant. Individual powers, interests, and habits must be continually translated into social equivalents, into terms of what youth is capable of contributing to effective social living.

Kilpatrick tells us that interest is the flame of life that sets life more on fire as it burns. It is the active and self-directive urge to create more of life itself.¹ If education accepts the evidence of genuine interest as a sign of inner power, then it is essential that interest become a significant motivating force in the approach to life in the school. Through observed interest, the teacher may enter the life of youth and plan the sequence of the curriculum. It becomes the teacher's major responsibility to be ever alert to the real urges and drives of youth. The technique for the tapping of these motivating sources requires the concerted thought and cooperative effort of all who are deeply concerned with educational progress. The generally recognized basic major interests, needs, and problems of youth today furnish the point of departure for planning activities. They give direction for pupil participation in planning enterprises through which interests are expanded, needs met, difficulties eliminated, or problems solved. Interest-motivated activities stimulate investigation into realms of organized knowledge; planning these activities requires participation; and happy solution results in the acquisition of skills, information, attitudes, and appreciations that are satisfying and socially significant.

¹ William Heard Kilpatrick, *A Reconstructed Theory of the Educative Process*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935.

YOUTH IS ACCEPTED AS A PARTNER IN SCHOOL RELATIONSHIP

Where the principles of democratic education are practiced, the pupil is accepted as a responsible partner in the teaching-learning process. Learning for the intrinsic satisfaction and for the recognized usefulness of the experiences gained are motivating elements; the school is a place for wholesome adolescent living rather than a place where one is inoculated against the ills of adulthood; the contributions of many fields of knowledge are focused upon the youth's obvious needs and endeavors in contrast to the teaching of factual material in isolation. School control is a purposeful and joint undertaking between the boys and girls and faculty rather than merely a matter of authoritative dictation and imposed control. This joint undertaking does not imply that the teacher relinquish her leadership or guidance responsibility. It is ever the obligation of the teacher to sense the drives and needs of youth. The teacher should ever be alert to guide youth to broader horizons and higher planes of achievement. Pupils should be permitted to participate in the life and government of the school, but they at all times should profit by the wisdom and experience of experts in guidance.

YOUTH IS ACCEPTED AS A PARTNER IN THE HOME
AND COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIP

In the triumvirate of youth-home-school, the youth is accepted as a citizen of his community, particularly of the school community; teachers are looked upon as people, not merely as pedagogs or persons set apart; and parents are partners in the purposeful undertaking of educating the young.

The education resulting from association in the family life, for which parents are responsible, and the education through school life must go along together if the needs of youth are to be served adequately. Time and energy for study with parents of educational problems as an integral part of the programs of teachers and school administrators, therefore, is basic to present-day educational philosophy.

Education which takes place at school is profoundly affected by the experiences of the before-school age and by the concomitant experience afforded by adult society. Many of the finest accomplishments and most serious difficulties found in schools are due largely to attitudes and practices in the world of adults outside of schools. The magnitude and complexity of the task of education is increased by recognition of the social needs and problems of our time, and the fact that schools are not apart from these needs and problems.

The school should seek the support of all constructive educational agencies and be ready to combat the many subversive and harmful influences.

School life for early adolescence should consist not only of those enterprises that youth and the instructor work on together within the school, but it should also embrace many cooperative community enterprises in which youth and the adult participate together for a common good. When adults work together for and with youth, more democratic progress will prevail. There are admitted difficulties in extending and realizing this ideal; but only thus can youth attain a genuine sense of social responsibility.

To this end, teachers and lay members of the community may work together to enhance and to make available stimulating activities in the community life. Furthermore, aims and purposes of the changing school program can be brought to the attention of the community when parents come into the school and know the enterprises in which their boys and girls are actually engaged and when they participate with youth in sharing the cultural and constructive opportunities found in the community life.

NEW PROGRESS EVALUATION PROCEDURES ARE NEEDED

In democratic schools the selective and eliminating function is lessened. Research reveals that it is not desirable to retard or accelerate progress except within narrow limits. The mental hygiene of success and failure supports a nonretardation and nonacceleration program.

Once education is conceived as creative growth in democratic society, the rating of progress in terms of marks, grades, units, or credits becomes potentially artificial and out of harmony. When the growth and development of the whole living organism is sincerely considered in an educational program; and when all types of constructive endeavor are regarded as respectable, and are respected by the school and the social order which supports it, ability rated on the examination of factual content assimilated in subject fields or the reaching of an average or standardized norm, will disappear as sole evidence upon which to rate progress. When educators are aware that satisfaction, pleasure, or enjoyment is the inherent accompaniment of growth; that it is evidence of a self-building process; that in achievement it is a sign of a constructive interaction between situation and learner; that it is a revelation of absorbed interest of the integrating processes at work, the present superficial means of rating progress will be replaced by sounder methods of evaluation. That youth as a

participant in the learning experiences must be aware of the aims, purposes, or objectives and that he must accept them as goals worthy of his efforts is essential before meaningful progress may result. This principle of acceptance of goals by the learner implies that he must participate in the evaluation procedure; for he is then cognizant of the objectives set up or accepted by him and of the new meanings experienced.

As the school plans a normal environment for childhood, it becomes its obligation to provide opportunity of such richness and diversity that all early adolescents or that group of youth ranging in age from approximately twelve years to fifteen years will be able to pursue their varied interests and utilize fully their varied capacities. Promotion should be on the basis of evidence that the environment of the next section will be more stimulating to further growth in the expansion of social interests, in the power to do things of greater complexity, in the ability to grapple with new situations, and in the power to enter pervasively into the building of self.

EVERY TEACHER CONTRIBUTES TO THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

When education is accepted as directed growth, the importance of a guidance program that operates on a mental hygiene basis is apparent. We decry the predictable fact that more of our present school population will eventually be found in penal institutions or state hospitals suffering from a mental disease, than will graduate from college and university. Such evidence reveals clearly that our goal in the past has not been education of the whole personality. Success, happiness, and integrity of being are corollaries of the dynamic theory of learning. As the theory is more widely applied, a functioning guidance program, in which individual and social integration are emphasized, will find a place of paramount importance.

The school, with its wide range of individual differences and its multiple opportunities, must make guidance a service to which every teacher contributes. Trained counselors or specialists in guidance are needed in all large schools. The administrator of the school should designate the guidance responsibilities of the general teacher and those of the specialist. A more efficient functioning results when a differentiation of duties is clearly defined.

The function of guidance has been stated as guiding students, on the basis of exploratory and revealing experiences and of information gathered from personnel studies, as wisely as possible into wholesome and worth-while maximum personality adjustment, social relationships,⁷ and continued study of vocations in which

they are most likely to be successful and happy. But it is also to be observed that

... the value of guidance in directing the development of the school lies in the opportunity which it presents for evaluating the program of education in terms of the interests, capacities, abilities, and needs of individual pupils. Such an evaluation should serve to emphasize (1) the need for a greatly diversified program of education; (2) the opportunity to improve the guidance value of all the activities; (3) the necessity for the development of a democratic theory and practice of administration; and (4) the social responsibility of the school.¹

Guidance is a service that is concerned with the best welfare of each individual and his best contribution to group life. The environmental situations that will result in the realization of democratic aims are always the concern of the guidance worker.

THE TEACHER IN A DEMOCRATIC SCHOOL IS DYNAMIC

The school of today in a democratic society needs teachers who work in a new way; teachers who have and know how to apply the technical knowledge and skills of the profession; teachers who have a philosophy that gives direction to their work; teachers who are more interested in the growth and development of boys and girls than in subject content; teachers who are well informed and possess a rich cultural background; teachers who have human sympathies and broad understanding of human needs; teachers who are strong, vigorous, stable, and well integrated; teachers who delight in living with boys and girls; teachers who inspire confidence and respect; teachers who do not impose or dictate, but who encourage cooperation, interdependence, and the sharing by all in successful achievement; teachers who have expansive group consciousness and deep social concern; teachers who inspire; teachers who are courageous, positive, tolerant, and eager; teachers who love the beautiful; teachers who seek truth; teachers who are free; teachers who are able to guide youth in self-discovery, in self-direction, and toward the realization of a happy, well-balanced personality with integrity of being; teachers who are artists in stimulating human powers to their maximum; teachers with a genuine concern for human welfare and social progress.

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THE EVALUATION OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PROGRAM¹

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Like tides and taxes, evaluation is inevitable. Human beings can not work at a task, however trivial, without making some estimate of the degree of success achieved. Little Jack Horner is characteristic of us all, for when he stuck in his thumb and pulled out a plum he could not resist the conclusion, "What a great boy am I." Sometimes, perhaps, we have as little reason for self-congratulation as he. Just how much satisfaction should we feel, for example, if the pupils in our school equal or exceed the national norms? Should we, in other words, accept *that which is* as the standard of all that is right, and the average of *what is* as something almost sacred? My answer to both these questions is no. When we consider the meager educational facilities and the low standards existing in vast areas in our country, national norms seem so pitifully low that we should not feel much gratification in merely meeting this standard. If we think, however, of the narrow range of skills and facts included in the norms, and of the sacrifice of practically all else in school life to their acquisition, and again of the number of children who are forced into maladjustment because of their inability to equal average attainments, we must admit that national norms may be unreasonably and disastrously high. Perhaps the real error lies in thinking that all children and all schools, in spite of tremendous differences, should cluster closely around that mythical thing called an average. If you agree with me that they should not, then national norms cease to loom very large as standards of evaluation.

Educators whose eyes are set in the back of their heads may justify their schools on the ground that they are as good as the schools of yesterday. Such folk remind me of the young man who was taken to task for his personal appearance. His critic pointed out that his deceased father had always been a fastidious dresser, and ended with the question, "Why don't you give attention to your clothes as your father did?" The unanswerable reply was, "But these are father's clothes that I'm wearing."

¹ Address given before the Annual Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, Fairmont Hotel, San Francisco, October 27, 1937.

None of us, I am sure, is satisfied with our schools just because they are no worse than they were in father's or grandfather's day. Yet the whole set of standards by which we judge educational procedures is bound to be that which we have built up through our own past school experience and which has been handed down to us as part of our pedagogical inheritance, unless we make a serious effort to revise it. The mental law of inertia sends us on in a straight line at a uniform rate forever, unless some force operates to move us in new directions and to accelerate our pace.

There is only one valid and useful basis of comparison: that is to compare what we have with what might be. Browning says "A man's reach much exceed his grasp, or what's a heaven for." I would bring the moral nearer home, and say "A man's reach must exceed his grasp, or what's the present for." Much in our lives and in our schools falls short of what it might be just because we fail to throw off the blinders that confine our vision to the next immediate steps and to the ruts well worn by tradition. Surely in schools where there is no vision, the pupils perish. I like to challenge students interested in elementary education to try to empty their minds of preconceived ideas of schooling, and to list the specifications they would set up for an ideal program of activities and experiences for a group of children from the age of six to the age of twelve. They can't, of course, get rid of all their preconceptions; but even inexperienced college students can block out a program more consistent with the known facts of child development than many school programs. If you have never tried this task, I commend it to you.

To compare our schools with those of the past, whose programs would be totally inadequate for today's needs, or to compare them with the mediocre schools of today, may be to make a comparison satisfying to our pride, but also dangerously conducive to complacency. Progress depends on those who look forward to new possibilities and further achievements. I make no apology for proposing that we evaluate our schools in terms of our best ideals rather than in terms of the mediocre achievements of past or present.

Evaluation may be superficial, piecemeal and inadequate or it may be thoughtful, comprehensive and consistent. A school may be judged successful because its teachers and especially its pupils do not cause any trouble. Administrators are often tempted to consider this criterion an important one. It is difficult, however, to trace any direct connection between it and the valid purposes of the school. Trouble-making of the right sort is the very thing needed in a school which fails to meet the basic needs of its pupils. I do not suggest evaluating the school with reference to a single standard; but if we

were to do so, I know of no better one than that employed by a Chinese patron of a school in Honolulu. Said this Oriental father to the principal, "I don't know much about American schools. I don't understand many of your ideas of education. But, little Wang Li comes home from school happy every day, so I think it must be a good school."

EVALUATION RESTS UPON A PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION

A comprehensive and consistent appraisal of the school must grow out of a defensible philosophy of education. Philosophy is indeed primarily concerned with values and evaluation. One can evaluate a school, or any other institution, only in terms of the aims it seeks to achieve. The fact that we do not all agree upon the educational values which we cherish leads not only to different criteria of success but also to innumerable confusions and contradictions in practice. Personally, I have come to the place where I can no longer accept the appraisal of the person who says, "It's a good school, but of a very formal type." I believe that both the known facts of human development and the insistent realities of the social order make imperative the attainment of certain values and outcomes which the very formal school ignores. This type of school stands indicted not because it fails in achieving certain limited objectives, but because its aims are entirely too narrow and partial.

That few of us are consistent in our outlook on education is obvious. Professor Boyd H. Bode recently characterized the average person's mind as a miscellaneous collection of odds and ends. If our educational philosophies are to be more than this, we must clarify for ourselves the basic values and then order our thinking and our practice in relation to those values. Instead of being impatient with theory, we must come to distrust any practice that can not be justified by theory. When I encounter practical school people who are forever finding reasons why they can not do the things they admit should be done in schools (and which other school people are finding ways to do), I remember the definition someone gave of the practical man, one who practices the errors of his forefathers. We seem far from the day, visioned by Plato, when philosophers will be kings. We shall be well on the way to the happy state which he desired if teachers will become philosophers.

EDUCATION IN A DEMOCRACY

Evaluation of the school program must be made in relation to the society of which the school is a part. Education is not a time-

less absolute, but is intimately conditioned by time, place and circumstance. You and I are concerned with schools in a democratic society—at a time when both the practices and the ideals of democracy are seriously challenged and threatened. What are the implications of democracy for the school? First and foremost is respect for personality. The very heart of the democratic concept is respect for each person, no matter what his age, sex, position, wealth, race, nationality, language, abilities, and handicaps. I believe every school is obligated to respect the personalities of its pupils—a tremendous obligation. If we respect our pupils we must share with them the setting up of aims and the selection of means by which the aims are achieved. Human beings at a very early age are capable of setting goals for themselves and of striving to attain them. If we deny them opportunity thus to act in school, we treat them as less than human. We must respect the abilities, ideas and purposes of children at every level, for these are the bases for all future growth. To respect these means to use them and give them opportunity to express themselves and thus to grow. The traditional, formal school does not value and use children's impulses, interests and purposes, and by this disrespect it denies the validity of democracy.

A school that respects the personalities of its pupils has a positive appreciation for the differences between individuals. It provides a program that encourages the development of unique talents and compensates for individual deficiencies. No school is democratic that attempts to mold all children to one pattern, or that requires or even expects the same achievement from all. These differences are both qualitative and quantitative. Neither teachers nor pupils can be happy or even fully successful, so long as the old conviction lingers that all children in a group must have almost exactly the same school experiences and achieve approximately the same degree of success.

Respect for personality implies not only respect for the present interests and purposes of the individual, but also regard for what he is capable of becoming. The democratic school values the full, complete, balanced development of every child, and repudiates a program that provides for only certain restricted academic needs. Finally, the democratic teacher holds that the ideals of democracy will be more nearly attained in society if young people learn to practice and cherish the democratic way of life day by day and year after year in their school experience. This implies school life built upon mutual trust and respect among pupils and between teacher and pupils. It demands mutual sharing in the choice and the pursuit of goals, and shared joy in the success of their endeavors.

EDUCATION FOR A CHANGING WORLD

Society today is dynamic as well as democratic. Our inherited conceptions of schooling, however, were developed in a relatively static society. I need not stress the fact of change. None of us can maintain the slightest contact with the world around him without being struck with the rapidity and pervasiveness of change. The problem is not to recognize the importance of change, but rather to reinterpret and re-evaluate the appropriateness of school practices in a dynamic society. It is difficult for us to see that initiative and resourcefulness in meeting new situations are more important than conformity to old patterns. I do not mean that it is difficult to give verbal assent to such a proposition, but that the organization of school life to encourage the former type of behavior rather than the latter requires a high degree of leadership. The traditional school stressed learning the answers by reference to a book to pre-formulated questions. Problem-solving meant cutting the cloth to fit hand-me-down problems.

I believe, thus far, we have not really thought through the implications for schooling of a rapidly changing world. Surely a questioning attitude is more to be valued than the ability to recite glib answers. A conviction that new occasions teach new duties, that each day is a fresh adventure to be approached with open and resourceful mind, that the past has much to teach but that past solutions will not suffice for new problems, all of these seem valuable attitudes for young people to build. The ability to sense problems, to be aware of inconsistencies and paradoxes in the life around one, and the disposition to collect and organize evidence in order to resolve confusions and contradictions would also seem to be necessary characteristics. All that encourages creativeness in thinking and in expression seems highly desirable. In order to work day by day for these attitudes and abilities, a school must break sharply with earlier traditions of schooling, and rebuild its program to emphasize adventuring into new and broader fields.

EDUCATION FOR COOPERATION

The frontier school not only accepted the doctrine of rugged individualism, but organized its program to strengthen and almost to glorify this way of life. There was considerable justification for such a program in frontier days. But the persistence of this characteristic unrestrained by social impulses into our modern, interdependent world spells anarchy. It seems obvious to me that most of the evil and maladjustment in the world at present is due to the

willfulness of men in pursuing their individual aims without regard for the social consequences. The world today is interdependent, whether we like it or not, and civilization itself is threatened because men will not cooperate. The times cry out for a new generation of young people who can and will work together. Cooperation is learned only in a school which emphasizes joint sharing in its program of work and play. Not only should children share with their schoolmates in the give and take of school life, but they must also develop a growing sensitiveness to the consequences of their behavior upon others. In accord with their level of understanding, they need to become socially sensitive to the conditions and influences in the community. They need to identify themselves with the community, with its achievements and its shortcomings, and accept responsibility for making it a better place for all. If they can participate in socially useful enterprises, this identification will be furthered. There is an aggressive type of individualism which seeks to exploit neighbors and community for selfish ends. Hardly less destructive in its effects is the passive individualism that neglects responsibilities to community, state, nation, and world in its exclusive preoccupation with private concerns. The thing needed might be called an aggressive disposition to cooperate. I believe the school can build such a disposition if it will seek persistently to do so.

WHAT PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING SHALL BE ACCEPTED

Shall the school's work be evaluated in terms of a mechanistic and atomistic psychology of learning or of a more modern organismic psychology of behavior and development? An adequate answer to this question would require more space than is available here. There is no doubt that in the traditional school learning was conceived as the accumulation of a vast collection of separate and largely unrelated parts. Interest and effort were supposed to be turned on and off at the stroke of the clock. The principle was divide and conquer. In the process of dividing, symbols were separated from the contexts which gave them meaning, experience was broken into bits which no longer had the characteristics of experience, and learning became piecemeal, verbalistic, and academic.

Today we prefer to take as basic an active organism which contains within itself impulses and tendencies that cause it continually to interact with its environment. The primary characteristic of the organism is purposeful behavior; it continually sets up goals for itself which it seeks to achieve. In this process of goal-setting and goal-seeking, it encounters new situations, contrives and makes new responses, and in turn is acted upon and consequently changed by forces

and things outside itself. Through these experiences, the organism learns that certain goals, certain responses, and certain effects are desirable or satisfying and that others are not. Throughout all such experiences the organism acts as a unit, an integrated, cooperative whole; it thinks, acts, and feels simultaneously. Through this actual process of living, it learns to live more effectively, more satisfyingly, more richly.

The modern school accepts the interpretation of life and learning sketched too briefly in the preceding statements. It is legitimate, then, to judge its program as it succeeds or fails in making purposeful, goal-seeking behavior the basis of school life. It is successful if it provides for children a physical, social, mental and emotional environment conducive to wholehearted, zestful, purposeful experiencing, in which children progressively set for themselves more worthy, wholesome goals, and both individually and collectively act with increasing effectiveness in achieving them. Wisely directed, this process includes all the desirable objectives we set for the school. It includes opportunities for the practice of open-mindedness and tolerance, intellectual and moral integrity, creative endeavor and critical thinking; it offers challenges to vigorous and persistent effort, and yields the satisfactions of successful achievement and deserved recognition.

CHARACTERISTICS OF WORTHY SCHOOL LIFE

I should like to propose that the most useful means of evaluating the elementary school program is to appraise the quality of school life it provides day after day for its pupils. If the inclusive purpose of education is to elevate and hold high the level of human living, the only valid school program is one that provides continuous opportunity for young people to participate in the good life. I believe that the insistent demands of a dynamic, democratic, and interdependent social order agree with the best insight provided by the modern organismic psychology of human development in prescribing the general characteristics of good school life somewhat as follows:

1. The bulk of children's school experiences consist of aggressive, persistent, and cooperative effort directed to the achievement of goals or purposes which appeal to them as significant and which lead them to a progressively better understanding and a richer appreciation of themselves, the world of nature, and the world of man.
2. The school respects the personalities, abilities, interests, and purposes of children at all levels of development, for what they are, and for what they may become.

3. The school values, uses, and develops the unique talents of individual children. It makes constant provision for the recognition and development of individual interests and capacities, for originality in thought and in creative expression, since these qualities are the basis of personal development and simultaneously enrich the group of which the individual is a member.

4. The school program encourages thoughtfulness in meeting the experiences and problems of daily life. It provides for deliberation, for critical evaluation, and for thoughtful organization of purposes, plans and activities.

5. School life is varied, balanced, and integrated. It includes all wholesome phases of living. Experiences within and without the school are correlated, to the enrichment of each. Mental integrity is encouraged.

6. The school program insures continuous achievement for all pupils. It makes success not only possible but highly probable for all. The psychology of success is continually practiced.

7. The teacher serves as guide, counselor and friend, whose leadership inheres in her wise understanding of children, of the process of development, and of the world which her pupils seek to understand.

8. Policies of organization, administration, and supervision are consistent with the philosophy of education held. They are based upon respect for the personalities of all who are involved in the educational task, including teachers and pupils. Policies of promotion and classification, measuring outcomes, providing materials, organizing the daily program, using textbooks, and all the rest, are likewise in harmony with the basic philosophy.

THE TEACHER'S MORALE AS AN IMPORTANT FACTOR IN TEACHING SUCCESS¹

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The development and maintenance of morale is a recognized necessity in any situation which involves the cooperative efforts of a number of persons. This is true whether the group is one working for selfish ends and under authoritarian direction, or one working for nonselfish ends and under cooperative leadership. Morale is probably nowhere of greater importance than in a group of educational workers. The nature and importance of the task demands the very highest type of group spirit. The success of cooperative leadership in a group of professional workers depends upon morale far more than does the success of authoritarian direction.

A DEFINITION OF MORALE

It is very difficult to secure a meaningful definition of morale, though many definitions are available. One of the best statements is that of House:

We may say that morale is (1) a measure of will or tendency to act; (2) that as such, it involves the coordination of component tendencies; (3) that it can be seen to act toward some end, or as coordination with reference to some purpose; and (4) that it is dependent upon a structural condition of organization.

Morale, where it exists in measurable degree, is to be thought of as a lasting, consistent organization of these personal attitudes as they can be mobilized in a corporate activity through the group.

Morale is a term to be applied to the relatively complete coordination of the attitudes and activities of the group, and to the resulting consistent, unified, and effective behavior of the group as a corporate whole.²

Another statement by Munson³ is valuable in that it indicates still other essential characteristics:

Morale is a term which should be used to express the measure of determination to succeed in the purpose for which the individual is trained, or for which the group exists. It describes the nature and degree of cooperation, confidence, and unity of understanding, sympathy and purpose existing

¹ This article presenting general principles will be followed in the August issue by an article by Professor Burton and Superintendent Cralle of Inglewood, California, presenting the results of an investigation of morale factors within a given school system.

² Floyd N. House. "Industrial Morale." Unpublished doctor's thesis. University of Chicago, 1924, pp. 149, 156, 160.

³ Edward L. Munson. *The Management of Men*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1921, p. 3. Quoted by permission of the publisher.

between the individuals composing the group. It is fitness of mind for the purpose in hand. It is a sense of solidarity of strength and purpose, and ability to undergo in the accomplishment of a common cause. It rises and falls from causes which intelligent analysis can usually detect, and which when once detected are usually capable of being corrected.¹

It will be noted that the two foregoing references are from the literature of industry. It is a serious criticism of the educational profession that it has scarcely attacked as yet this vital problem of morale. There are practically no objective investigations and many of the discussions are naive and superficial. One of the most fruitful areas for investigation in the whole field of education lies here. Most of the citations in these pages will of necessity be from fields outside education. There are, however, a small number of valuable presentations by school workers and these will be summarized in appropriate connection a few pages below.

PSYCHOLOGICAL BASES OF MORALE

Morale is not only a desirable but a desired condition. What are the general psychological incentives and urges which lie at the roots of morale? The following list is based on the excellent study by White:

1. The desire for justice, individual and group
2. The desire for recognition
3. The desire for stimulating leadership, personal and institutional loyalty
4. The desire for stimulating social contacts with ones fellows
5. The desire to satisfy ones sense of achievement
6. The desire for security through adjustment to ones job²

Scrutiny of these items affords a preliminary view of the conditions under which morale will develop. Before turning to a listing of stimulants and depressants, further insight will be gained through scrutiny of the evidences of morale or of its absence.

PSYCHOLOGICAL EVIDENCES OF THE PRESENCE OR ABSENCE OF MORALE

By far the best statement is found in Small's study of executive ability. Under good conditions all levels of workers will clearly manifest the following attitudes:

1. He is enthusiastic and self-confident. He respects his own judgment and is willing to both make decisions and to accept full responsibility for any course of action which they involve.

¹ Edward L. Munson, *The Management of Men*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1921, p.3, Quoted by permission of the publisher.

² Leonard D. White, *Conditions of Municipal Employment in Chicago*. Published by City of Chicago, 1925.

2. He likes and respects those in authority over him and his fellow workers and is confident that they like and respect him. He is jealous of their good opinion and is careful to be worthy of it.

3. He enjoys his work and takes just pride in its quality and in his ability to accomplish results. He believes that those in authority appreciate this ability and he will go to endless pains with difficult problems in order to accomplish results which will justify their esteem and confidence.

4. As he is sure of the high regard in which he is held by his employers, he is confident of the retention of his position and the security of his future. He is free from worry, cheerful, optimistic, and contented. He is able to enjoy his leisure because he leaves his business problems at his office.¹

Before making application to educational work it must be noted that the above statements are drawn from business organizations. Authority is stressed and there is apparent some propaganda designed to keep employees happy as employees. In education the term "leadership" must be substituted for "authority" and more stress placed upon the cooperative relationship than that of employer and employee. However, intelligently interpreted the four items supply valuable guidance.

Obviously the attitudes of persons of poor morale are the opposite of the above. Small statements are reproduced below because they are more than merely reversals of the positive points. The details supply much additional guidance.

1. They lack enthusiasm and self-confidence. They avoid decisions or responsibility, always attempting to pass the decision and responsibility to those over them, even preferring to accept their snap judgment, and to proceed on a course they know to be wrong rather than to act on their own initiative. They feel they will obtain little credit for correct action, but know they will be highly censured for mistakes, and even fear the loss of their positions.

2. They dislike and do not respect their superiors or fellow workers, with the exception of a few in a clique formed defensively for their mutual protection. They feel that the blame for all mistakes is shifted to their shoulders by their superiors or fellow workers for the purpose of advancing their cause and discrediting them in the eyes of the management.

3. They dislike their work and take little pride in it, for it is seldom commended. They think the managers fail to appreciate their ability, they dislike to tackle anything which may result in criticism and the further jeopardy of their positions, and they concentrate their energies in avoiding or concealing those matters which have been the subject of past censure.

4. They are sure they lack standing with the management and are constantly in danger of losing their positions. They are worried, depressed, pessimistic, and unhappy. Their leisure is clouded by worry about the uncertainty of their future.

With the change of some words and interpretations these points are of value in considering the morale of school workers.

¹ Sumner G. Small, "How to Develop Executive Ability through Personality," *Industrial Management*, LXI (Feb. 1, 1921), 115-116

FACTORS INIMICAL TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF MORALE

By far the best objective study yet made of morale is the one by White referred to above. This was an extensive, carefully analytic investigation of the factors influencing morale among municipal employees in Chicago. Practically all his points are directly applicable to the school.

Conditions depressing morale:

1. Lack of recognition
2. Lack of proper and uniform discipline
3. Handicaps to development of initiative
4. Absence of a common social life among the group
5. Maladjustment of salaries, individual and group
6. Inequality and inaccuracy in results of efficiency ratings
7. Prevalence of political influence in determining appointments, promotions, regrading of positions, assignments, and other phases of personnel management¹

Anderson points out that certain prohibitions and interferences with a teacher's private life are destructive of morale. He cites the following:

1. Prohibition against such recreations as card playing and dancing
2. Positive requirements, such as church attendance and Sunday School teaching
3. Proscription of marriage, or following certain outside interests deemed to interfere with school work
4. Attempts to secure increased community service from the teacher by requiring that she live in the district, remain in it over week ends
5. Demands of oath-taking, flag saluting, and other verbalisms growing out of a grossly mistaken idea of patriotism
6. Rules against giving or receiving gifts²

Causes of dissatisfaction and fear or lack of morale among the teachers are listed by Pierce to include (1) inability to specialize; (2) resentment of attitude of contempt; (3) one-year-contract rule; (4) change in administration causing changes in personnel; (5) no freedom of thought or expression; (6) poor professional conditions.³

Based on the foregoing and upon other fragmentary discussions a list of factors inimical to morale may be organized.

I. Factors in Community Life

1. Lack of community respect and cooperation
2. Lack of opportunity for desirable social life
3. Lack of comfortable and desirable living quarters

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 40 ff.

² Earl W. Anderson, "Hamstringing our Teachers," *Atlantic Monthly*, CXLV (March, 1930), 390-397.

³ David H. Pierce, "The Teachers Fear," *Educational Review*, LXXII (October, 1926), 170-172.

4. Lack of personal freedom: *i.e.* presence of unnecessary restraints, prohibitions and interferences with private lives.

II. Factors in Unintelligent Administration and Supervision

1. Failure to orient new staff members socially or professionally
2. Failure to invite participation in policy and plan making; failure to recognize contributions or good teaching
3. Failure to maintain consistently a sound defensible policy of administration and supervision
4. Failure to maintain a sound employment situation
 - a. Selection, appointment, promotion on capricious, personal, or political bases. Undeserved appointments and promotions, political interference with technical fitness.
 - b. Last minute assignments and transfers
 - c. Maladjustment of salaries
 - d. Too short contractual periods; insecurity of tenure
 - e. Rapid turnover of both administrative-supervisory staff and teaching group
 - f. Absence of retirement or pension plan
 - g. Restriction or absence of sick leave; of sabbaticals for travel or study
5. Failure to supply good working conditions: properly constructed buildings; properly equipped rooms, laboratories and play grounds; proper sanitary facilities; adequate and comfortable retiring rooms for relaxation, etc.
6. Failure to supply ambitious, enthusiastic, technically adequate professional leadership.

FACTORS FAVORABLE TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF MORALE

Turning once again to White's study, the following methods of stimulating morale applicable to the school are selected from his total list: (1) systematic recognition, (2) better organization and procedures of management, (3) greater opportunity, (4) survey of physical conditions, (5) survey and readjustment of salaries, (6) adequate and fair discipline, (7) desirable social life, (8) leadership by those in positions of authority.

In Hocking's very interesting pragmatic analysis of morale he suggests a number of factors which we may apply to school conditions. He states that morale is enhanced by (1) adequate time in which to accomplish work; (2) good physical conditions; (3) confidence in one's

skill and ability; (4) respect and cooperation from the community; (5) elimination of friction; (6) appeals to the imagination and ambition.¹

Dorsey suggests that morale will be improved if (1) teachers load assignments are fair, (2) there are good physical surroundings, (3) there is sane supervision, (4) proper salary, tenure, and retirement provisions, (5) sabbatical years, (6) sick leaves, and (7) full credit given for all participation and contribution.²

Oddly enough none of the studies or discussions mentions health as a separate and distinct factor in morale. However, it is unquestionably indicated by a dozen or so of the items which are listed. Hence, health may be emphasized as a prime requisite for morale.

The following outline presents most of the essential factors in the maintenance of morale.

I. Leadership in Community Relationships

1. Securing community recognition and respect for the school and its workers
2. Providing, in so far as an administration can, opportunities for adequate and desirable social life
3. Aiding in the securing of adequate and comfortable living conditions
4. Minimizing, in so far as an administration can, unnecessary and unwarranted restrictions upon and interferences with private lives.

II. Leadership in Administration and Supervision

1. Maintaining a consistent policy and practice of orienting all new staff members socially and professionally
2. Inviting and providing for continuous participation in policy and plan making: recognizing contributions and suggestions
3. Maintaining a consistent and rational policy of administration and supervision, thus making for confidence and security
4. Maintaining a sound employment policy
 - a. Selection, appointment, and promotion on the basis of objective techniques and merit
 - b. Assignments and transfers made with due regard to the difficulties and necessities of preparing for and adjusting to a new situation
 - c. An adequate salary schedule based on principles, reasonably automatic in operation, and with an open top
 - d. Reasonable security of tenure and avoidance of annual elections and contracts

¹ W. E. Hocking. *Morale and its Enemies*. New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1918, p. 142.

² Susan M. Dorsey, "Promoting Friendliness in School Relationships," *Nations Schools*, V. (April, 1930), 41-44.

- e. Elimination of causes of rapid or too great turnover in so far as possible
- f. A retirement, pension, or annuity plan
- g. A fair policy of sick leave; reasonable ease of securing sabbaticals for travel or study
5. Supplying and maintaining good working conditions, supplies, extra-instructional facilities, retiring and rest rooms
6. Maintaining a constant and consistent leadership which is ambitious, enthusiastic, and technically adequate.

SUPERVISION AND THE MAINTENANCE OF MORALE

Supervision has a very special place, if not the crucial place in developing morale. We may recall at this point all our knowledge of the principles and techniques of democracy which are at the heart of this matter. In conclusion a set of suggestions is presented for the use of the supervisor in morale work. These are based upon an older set which appeared in Barr and Burton's *The Supervision of Instruction*¹ and upon a statement by Small.²

Supervisors will contribute to morale:

1. Through manifesting faith and confidence in all their coworkers
2. Through expertness in professional leadership displayed (Teachers will have confidence in and give allegiance to supervisors who are known to be experts.)
3. Through a willing and unselfish expenditure of time and energy in meeting problems and in rendering service
4. Through maintaining a policy of cooperative attack and solution all problems and tasks
5. Through inviting the cooperation of given individuals and groups in terms of the training, abilities, and attitudes of those individuals and groups. Thus tasks and problems will be entered upon with reasonable assurance of success with resultant effect upon morale
6. Through giving full public credit for all contributions
7. Through judging contributions, suggestions, and results achieved in terms of the persons concerned and the conditions involved, instead of by some arbitrary standard; through objective data and standards however fragmentary instead of by personal or capricious standards
8. Through leadership and administration which is kindly, sympathetic, and cooperative, and at the same time firm, objective, and impartial
9. Through providing every opportunity and facility for the exercise of freedom, initiative, and experimental attack upon problems and tasks

If morale is absent or seems to be disintegrating, all workers charged with leadership in this matter should, immediately, (1) locate and define the fault; (2) make diagnostic analysis of conditions creat-

¹A. S. Barr and W. H. Burton, *The Supervision of Instruction*. D. Appleton-Century Company, 1926, p. 19-20.

²Sumner G. Small, "How to Develop Executive Ability through Personality," *Industrial Management*, LXI (Feb. 1, 1921), 115-118.

ing the weakness; (3) formulate definite measures for correction of the condition; and (4) apply these measures, that is do something about it. All too often morale work is confined to vague sentimental appeals and evangelical exhortations.

Morale work must be carefully planned, be prompt in remedial measures, be continuous, and above all be carefully watched for results. It is difficult work calling not only for workers technically skilled in the formation of attitudes but for persons of exquisite sensitivity to human relations.

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TRENDS IN PLACEMENT OF TOPICS IN ARITHMETIC¹

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PLACE OF ARITHMETIC IN THE ELEMENTARY CURRICULUM

A Basis for Quantitative Thinking. Today arithmetic is fulfilling a rather different role in the elementary curriculum than it has in past years. Formerly arithmetic was considered a subject which had inherent in it definite possibilities for "training the mind." Under the conviction of such a concept, curriculum makers saw no reason for curtailing content in accord with the experience of the learner. The harder the arithmetic, the greater its virtue as an instrument for training the mind. Gradually curriculum makers have come to realize that immature minds have been unable to profit by procedures involved in the earlier philosophy concerning arithmetic.

While there was undoubtedly a need for computational skill in years past which has now changed with the introduction of modern mechanical devices, experience has taught that usage should not be the prime factor in determining the value of arithmetical content. There is undoubtedly less need for the complicated process of arithmetic today than ever before. This, however, is not the basic reason for a changing point of view concerning the teaching of arithmetic. Experimentation has proved that there are other values of more fundamental importance, values more significant for young children.

The place of arithmetic in the elementary curriculum today is determined by the fact that arithmetic is considered the basis for quantitative thinking, rather than a complex number system to be learned. While mastery of number facts involved in a process and an understanding of the process both have a place, the experience of thinking through the application of the process should precede the acquisition of the related number facts. Experiments have proved that general ideas developed through contact with numbers must include the number system, and that a more rounded treatment must be given to arithmetical processes if true relations and inner connections are to be impressed upon the learner.

¹ An address given before Conference on Supervision of Instruction, Fairmount Hotel, San Francisco, October, 1937.

Much of the content used in this paper has been taken from bulletins prepared by the late Mrs. Sue L. Fratis when principal of the Fruitvale Elementary School, Oakland.

Arithmetic is the one subject in the curriculum which affords a basis for quantitative thinking. Provision must be made for pupils to have whatever concrete experience is necessary in order to assure an understanding of the underlying logical principles on which arithmetical concepts depend.

A Training in Manipulation of Numbers. Since one learns similarities and differences through reacting, the child must have concrete experiences before he knows how to discriminate exactly. The pupil must understand arithmetical combinations and must progress step by step through each mathematical experience. There are two sides to the learning situation—the way in which the learner acquires understanding, and the mathematical characteristics which must be taken into consideration. It is essential that number facts become thoroughly mastered if accurate manipulation of number is to result. Therefore the manipulation of numbers is exceedingly important. Training in handling numbers must be consistent and sequential.

NEED FOR CRITICAL APPRAISAL OF ARITHMETIC TEACHING

High Failure Record in Arithmetic. Years of arithmetic teaching have indicated that the percentage of failure in arithmetic increases from grade to grade. Failure in other subjects decreases as the child matures.¹ These two facts should indicate that there has been something decidedly wrong with the teaching of arithmetic. There is every evidence for believing that the arithmetic as it has been taught in the past is too difficult for a great many children. This difficulty may be due to the relatively low learning capacity of some children, or it may be due to an attempt to crowd too much arithmetic into too short a time interval. Too many pupils in public school classes have been unable to cover the arithmetic of the curriculum with success.

Disparity Between Pupil's Mental Maturity and Capacity Required for Mastery of Processes. There seems to be quite a disparity between the pupil's mental maturity and the capacity required for mastery of the processes of arithmetic as taught in the elementary school. The school has not been able apparently to supply a sufficiently increasing body of experience for pupils to acquire a meaningful background of understanding for the processes to be learned. While the degree of understanding will always vary with individual pupils, there is enough evidence to warrant consideration of the need for affording pupils a much richer experiential background before introducing them to number symbols.

¹ W. A. Brownell. *The Development of Children's Number Ideas in the Primary Grades.* Supplementary Educational Monographs No. 35, Chicago: University of Chicago Press. August, 1928, p. 191.

Until pupils use arithmetic terms and have had experience with quantitative relationships, they are not ready mentally for the manipulative steps of the arithmetic processes. Curriculum practice has assumed that pupils can learn arithmetic through memorization of facts. Quantitative thinking will never be developed through memorization. It is therefore imperative than an introduction to a topic in arithmetic be based upon a pupil's actual first-hand experience with the arithmetic concept.

TWO TYPES OF RESEARCH IN ARITHMETIC

Studies of Utility. Several investigations have revealed the fact that mathematical reasoning is more necessary today than complicated computation skills. Most of the arithmetic needs of adults are with the four fundamental processes involving whole numbers, a few fractions, and a limited amount of decimals. Diary records of personal needs indicate that fractions used in everyday life are principally those of like denominators or of unlike denominators involving only twelfths, eighths, fourths, and halves. Mechanical means have decreased the need for the average person to use complex mathematical processes.

Children's Difficulties in Mastering the Number System. One of the more comprehensive studies of the psychology of arithmetic learning was made by Charles Hubbard Judd¹ in February, 1927. Judd has pointed out in a most convincing manner that number ideas can not be stamped upon the mind. Even in as simple a process as counting, it is necessary that the young child gain an analytical knowledge of the relationship of one number to another. The child can learn a number series without acquiring an idea of exactness. He can count without that counting having meaning for him; but if he is to understand the science of numbers, he must be acquiring an ever-increasing knowledge of the relationship of number in series.

An understanding of mathematical combinations must be gained through actual and prolonged reaction to the arrangement of objects. The transition from the concrete experience to number symbols must be taught. Because mental reactions are internal processes it is difficult for teachers to know how much reacting is going on within the pupil. The complex mental processes involved in counting, adding, subtracting, multiplying, and dividing must be assured if functional learning is to result.

The analysis of pupils' mental reactions has been given too little attention in the teaching of arithmetic. Research studies are throw-

¹ Charles Hubbard Judd, *Psychological Analysis of the Fundamentals of Arithmetic*. Supplementary Educational Monographs No. 32, Chicago: University of Chicago, 1927.

ing light upon the ways in which the human mind reacts. Behavior patterns in arithmetic are being investigated. While such investigation has not been sufficiently extensive to give conclusive evidence, the many genetic studies which have been made indicate the need for time in every area of the school curriculum for affording teachers the necessary opportunities for finding out how children are reacting.

RESULTS OF RESEARCH IN ARITHMETIC

Simplification of Numbers Used and Elimination of Useless Content. Textbooks today are proof of the way in which research is affecting arithmetic instruction. Involved problems and complex number operations are fast disappearing from the content of textbooks. Writers are endeavoring to include only such number relations as come within the actual experience of the child. Much useless content has also been entirely omitted. Square root, cube root, problems of plastering, carpeting, and compound interest have been almost entirely eliminated from the elementary curriculum. If arithmetic is to become functional the concepts in arithmetic must become as clear and meaningful to the child as other learning acquired through everyday contact with reality. Much greater progress must be made in textbook writing and classroom instruction in simplifying the technical vocabulary, the nontechnical vocabulary, and the general verbiage of arithmetic before a program is developed which can be mastered by the majority of elementary pupils. Many sets of arithmetic books of today start simply but increase in difficulty so rapidly that pupils are unable to cope with the complex ideas of the printed page. Unfortunately too many teachers take their teaching clues from the textbook. While the step in the right direction has been positive, there is still need for continued simplification and elimination.

Placement of Topics and Methodology. Studies have pointed out that children come to school with some arithmetic experience.¹ These experiences may have been such that the child has a functioning understanding of arithmetic, or they may be simply a superficial rote reproduction of adult teaching. Progressive schools are finding that in the kindergarten, and in the first, and second grades, it is profitable to give children many experiences of an informal nature

¹ Clifford Woody, "The Arithmetical Backgrounds of Young Children," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXIV (October, 1931), 188-201.

Josephine MacLachy, "Number Ideas of Young Children," *Childhood Education*, VII (October, 1930), 59-66.

B. R. Buckingham, and Josephine MacLachy, "The Number Abilities of Children When They Enter Grade One," *Report of the Society's Committee on Arithmetic*, Twenty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1930, pp. 473-524.

W. A. Brownell, *The Development of Children's Number Ideas in the Primary Grades*. Supplementary Educational Monographs No. 35, August, 1928. Chicago: The University of Chicago.

for developing an understanding of arithmetical facts. Classroom situations offer possibilities for first hand experiences with counting, reading of numbers, writing of numbers, the use of money, measurement, time, and the vocabulary of arithmetic. Activities relating to the home, the store, and transportation of people and of commodities also include opportunities for mathematical thinking. These schools have quite concluded that more is gained by the incidental and informal teaching of arithmetic in the lower grades than through the systematized learning of number combinations.

Teachers who have been experimenting are realizing that if a functional understanding is developed in the lower grades, by the time the child reaches the third grade he will be ready to begin work with the formal processes. By providing careful teaching during the transition from the concrete experience to the symbolized experience, a real and basic understanding of number relations should be established in the thinking of most pupils. Pertinent and well-developed drill will afford sufficient practice to establish the learning. If topics in arithmetic are curtailed to the extent of permitting the child sufficient time for reacting to each number situation, there is every reason for believing that mastery of each topic will result.

With careful provision for sufficient reteaching and maintenance of skills, all children should by the time they leave the sixth grade, have mastery of the four fundamental processes involving whole numbers, and understanding of fractions, and the ability to add and subtract simple fractions. Moreover, these processes should have been learned in such a way that they are functional in life situations.

NEED FOR INSTRUCTION INVOLVING ALL FUNCTIONS OF ARITHMETIC

Psychological Function—Quantitative Thinking. If arithmetic is to contribute to the thinking equipment of individuals, an understanding and appreciation of the structure of the number system is necessary. Number relationships and possible combinations of numbers should have thorough and careful study. As was previously pointed out, an understanding of counting, addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division will deepen with maturity, but the more obvious and simple elements of the structure of the number system can be taught to the elementary child. The technical vocabulary of arithmetic; words such as, addition, divisor, multiplier, quotient; and the nontechnical vocabulary; expressions such as in front of, before, on top of, to the right of; phrases such as, more than, as many as, less than; and quantitative concepts are a vital part of arithmetic teaching. If these concepts are not deliberately taught, it is probable that children will not acquire exactness and precision.

The use of quantitative methods as a basis for precise and ordered thinking should be an expected outcome of arithmetic teaching. There is definite need for children to realize that there is a correct procedure for arriving at a correct answer; in other words, that right results follow right steps. By selecting problems involving fewer operations and by keeping well within the scope of the learner's understanding, it should be possible for teachers to help pupils acquire real insight into quantitative relationships with confidence and accuracy.

Computational Function. As a rule, instruction concerns itself largely with the computational phases of arithmetic. In fact, in many situations computation seems to be the prime and only objective. Pencil-and-paper results may indicate computational efficiency, but that efficiency may be of a memorized character and may be forgotten quite as rapidly as it was learned. As has been stated, correct computation should be one of the end results of all arithmetic teaching, but functional computational mastery will depend upon discrimination. No matter how accurately numbers may be handled, if the pupil is unable to apply the correct process to the solution of a problem, all the skill of number manipulation will be lost. On the other hand, selection of the appropriate process in arithmetic is not sufficient for solving a problem. If number is involved, then thinking must be accurate and the computational phases likewise accurate.

Informational and Sociological Functions. Comparatively little has been done in instruction to contribute to pupil's appreciation of the place which number has played in the cultural development of the race. Even the young pupil can be taught to see how number plays a part in all that surrounds him. As the pupil matures, he can be helped to gain an increasing appreciation for the contribution of number to science, to music, to government, and to the general comfort of present-day life. Arithmetic might cease to be considered a dull, uninteresting subject if teachers were fully aware of the social significance of number in the world about them. Richer and fuller living would result if the sociological and informational functions of arithmetic were more thoroughly understood and appreciated.

SUGGESTED PLACEMENT OF TOPICS

It is evident that if the functions of arithmetic as just outlined are to be included in the elementary arithmetic program more time will be needed. Increased opportunities for utilizing quantitative problems as they occur throughout the entire school day will have to be found. In addition, some replacement of topics may be necessary.

As a first step, the Oakland Public Schools have reorganized the curriculum in arithmetic. It is believed progress will be made in teaching arithmetic functionally and with understanding on the part of the majority of pupils by redistributing some of the previously included content through the upper elementary and junior high school grades. After two years of experimentation, the following topical arrangement for the arithmetic course of study is being tried:

TOPICAL OUTLINE—COURSE OF STUDY IN ARITHMETIC¹

GRADES THREE THROUGH SIX

LOW-THIRD GRADE

1. Review of work of previous grades.
2. Addition and subtraction facts through 10.
3. Transition from concrete to abstract number.
4. Presentation of new material and necessary recall in:
 - A. Measurement
 - B. Reading and writing numbers
 - C. Value of money
 - D. Time
 - E. Roman numerals
 - F. Fractions

HIGH-THIRD GRADE

1. Remaining addition and subtraction facts not taught in low-third grade.
2. Two-place addition,*two digits high, no carrying.
3. Two-place subtraction, no carrying.
4. Transition from concrete to abstract number.
5. Presentation of new material and necessary recall in:
 - A. Measurement
 - B. Reading and writing numbers
 - C. Value of money
 - D. Time
 - E. Roman numerals
 - F. Fractions

LOW-FOURTH GRADE

1. Column addition, four digits high, no carrying.
2. Higher decade addition—bridging the 10's.
3. Combinations which must be taught as prerequisite to column addition.
4. Borrowing in subtraction.
5. Two column addition, 2, 3, and 4 digits high, with carrying.
6. Presentation of new material and necessary recall in:
 - A. Measurement
 - B. Reading and writing numbers
 - C. Value of money
 - D. Time
 - E. Roman numerals
 - F. Fractions

HIGH-FOURTH GRADE

1. Multiplication involving a functional use of the tables through the 5's, with carrying.
2. Division facts through the 5's tables with no carrying and no remainders involved.

¹ "Tentative Outline for the Teaching of Arithmetic in Grades Three Through Six." Oakland Public Schools. Elementary Arithmetic Committee, Mrs. Sue L. Fratis, Chairman. August, 1937. (Mimeographed.)

3. The combinations that cover the tables through 5 times 9 which must be taught as a prerequisite for carrying in multiplication.
4. Presentation of new material and necessary recall in:
 - A. Measurement
 - B. Reading and writing numbers
 - C. Value of money
 - D. Time
 - E. Roman numerals
 - F. Fractions

LOW-FIFTH GRADE

1. Multiplication involving a functional use of tables 6's through 9's with carrying.
2. Compound multiplication, multiplicand not to exceed four digits, multiplier not to exceed three digits.
3. Division facts, 6's through 9's tables, with no carrying and no remainder involved.
4. Zero difficulties in subtraction and multiplication.
5. Combinations which should be taught as a prerequisite for carrying in multiplication.
6. Presentation of new material and necessary recall in:
 - A. Measurement
 - B. Reading and writing numbers
 - C. Value of money
 - D. Time
 - E. Roman numerals
 - F. Fractions

HIGH-FIFTH GRADE

1. Reading of large numbers; writing not to exceed nine million.
2. Roman numerals; reading and writing to one hundred.
3. Short division by long division method.
4. Combinations in short division which give remainders.
5. Presentation of new material and necessary recall in:
 - A. Measurement
 - B. Reading and writing numbers
 - C. Value of money
 - D. Time
 - E. Fractions

LOW-SIXTH GRADE

1. Development of meaning of fractions.
2. Addition and subtraction of fractions and mixed numbers with like denominators.
3. Addition and subtraction of fractions and mixed numbers with unlike denominators.
4. Meaning of areas and dimensions.
5. Presentation of new material and necessary recall in:
 - A. Measurement
 - B. Reading and writing of numbers
 - C. Value of money
 - D. Time
 - E. Roman numerals
 - F. Fractions

HIGH-SIXTH GRADE

1. Low division involving whole numbers, 2- and 3-digit divisors; long division using dollars and cents as dividends with whole numbers as divisors not exceeding three digits.
2. Short division by short division methods.
3. High decade subtraction facts.

4. Subtraction combinations which are prerequisite to short division.
5. Additional work in addition and subtraction of fractions and mixed numbers.
6. Presentation of new material and necessary recall in:
 - A. Measurement
 - B. Reading and writing numbers
 - C. Value of money
 - D. Time
 - E. Roman numerals
 - F. Fractions

CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION TO MEET INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Because mental maturity will have determined to a great extent the acquired arithmetic background, the Oakland committee decided that it was practical to follow a grade arrangement recommending two or three groups within each classroom. Because of transfer from class to class and from school to school, it was deemed necessary to de-limit the arithmetic area to be covered by each grade. With the suggestion that individual differences be met by providing an enriched program for children whose insight into arithmetic is keener than that of others in the classroom, some of the informational and cultural phases of arithmetic therefore would become the brighter pupil's challenge, while the child requiring more time for fixing facts would have increased repetitions of the more easily learned factual type of arithmetic.

ARTICULATION OF ARITHMETIC PROGRAM BETWEEN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL AND JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

The junior high schools in Oakland have for several years indicated that if pupils enter the junior high school with the four fundamentals in whole numbers thoroughly mastered and with an understanding of fractions, their problems in arithmetic teaching are materially lessened. This newly inaugurated plan should make it possible for practically every child to reach this minimum.

The Oakland plan will require at least seven years or more for the completion of the rudimentary work in arithmetic. More time is required for an intensive first-hand experiential program, for vocabulary development, and for problem solving. If the program results in clearer concepts of mathematical relations, more precise and accurate thinking and a truly functioning ability in solving problems, time will have been well spent.

SOME LIBRARY PROBLEMS OF LARGE SCHOOLS SERVED BY COUNTY LIBRARIES

JOHN D. HENDERSON, *Field Representative,
California State Library*

Basing his conclusions on ten years of observation of county library service to schools, the State Superintendent of Public Instruction remarked in 1923, "The plan of cooperation has won its way by sheer force of efficient service." The work performed in the field since the statement was made justifies his good opinion. The success and popularity of this arrangement by which the county libraries supply library materials to contracting schools is attested by the fact that of 2,833 active elementary and high school districts in areas of the state served by county libraries, 2,313 are affiliated with county libraries.

Although the service was first intended for small rural schools with limited funds, many large districts are now benefiting from it. The materials required for instruction were relatively simple to provide and the program was undertaken in a spirit of helpfulness. The development of new problems and the need of extended service implicit in the plan were not evident at the outset to school administrators and county librarians. At present county libraries are no longer limiting their service to one-, two-, and three-teacher schools but are operating in schools employing fifty and sixty teachers. Where formerly a few thousand books constituted a fair-sized school department, there are at present several county libraries having more than 100,000 supplementary books in addition to maps, globes, pictures, charts, and other material.

Paralleling marked increases in school population there have developed changes in instructional methods and adoption of new materials of instruction. The changes have had far-reaching consequences for the county libraries. Aiming to keep their service abreast of educational advance and to comply with school requirements, the county libraries have purchased an increasing variety of supplementary books, reference sets, and visual education material. Their program has been enlarged to include reference service, frequent shipments of books, scheduled visits to schools, and administration of teachers' professional libraries. As schools have expanded their curriculums and given greater consideration to the individual differences of pupils, school service has necessarily become a specialized department of county libraries.

Curtailment of public expenditures during the depression interrupted the growth of county library school departments. This reduction of funds served to call attention to the amount of support required for the administration of library programs and to other questions of policy which the county libraries had not previously considered. Many of these problems, it was found, result from the extension of library services to larger schools.

Schools of above average size particularly have evidenced a desire for independent control of funds. Furthermore, since districts of this class make larger payments than smaller units, their fund frequently amounting to more than \$1,000, they feel that they are entitled to expect greater service regardless of the amount which the county libraries are already extending to them. Actually school reports of various counties show that the larger schools receive more for their money than smaller schools. Materials distributed for use in smaller districts are valued at from three to four times the amount of the school library fund. Larger schools, however, receive the equivalent in materials of four or five times the amount of their payments.

There are obvious advantages for the small schools under the contract arrangements with libraries, and on the whole, they have been happier in the relationship than large schools even though they receive a lesser proportional benefit. A number of the larger districts, on the other hand, have cancelled their contract because of a desire to be independent or because of a lack of a satisfactory working agreement between the library and the school.

A recent survey of schools that have withdrawn from the county library system showed that of twenty-eight schools cancelling contracts with county libraries, eighteen had six teachers or more, while one had fifty teachers and another sixty. Seven of the twenty-eight schools withdrawing from the service have since rejoined. One of this group employed nineteen teachers, another employed six, while the others had fewer than six teachers.

It should be noted, however, that in almost every county there are large school districts affiliated with the county library system on a basis that is satisfactory to school administrators and to the county librarian. These schools realize that they have received a good return on their investment and that they are quite willing to have their library material handled under the cooperative plan.

In many instances where schools have withdrawn from the service they have objected to overhead expenses charged to the school department. As a matter of good business on the part of the library service, it has seemed reasonable to require each participant in this cooperative enterprise to pay his full share of the operating costs. A law

adopted by the 1937 legislature recognized the justice of levying this overhead charge against the schools. The act stipulates for the first time how school funds turned over to county libraries shall be spent. Among other provisions for the disposition of school library funds it includes expenditures ". . . for the care and distribution of such books and other materials . . ." ¹ Thus the overhead charge is made legally valid—a point not heretofore definitely stated by law. No detailed survey has ever been made of the general operating expenses of the county library school departments. There is a wide variation in percentages of funds budgeted for this purpose. A definite statement of policy on overhead costs is greatly needed. The items to be covered by the allowance for fixed charges should be named; and the amount of books, other material, and service that can reasonably be expected from the money received should be carefully estimated. A cost analysis might well be undertaken in the several county libraries to bring to light the actual facts on operative costs in relation to capital outlay with a view to establishing a plan of procedure which might increase the efficiency of the system, from the standpoint of both expenditure and service.

A saving in overhead in some large districts already has been effected by bringing together in one room all library materials. The work has been expedited by having a teacher-librarian responsible for all of the books, charging them to the classrooms and handling all requests and other correspondence with the county library. If this became the practice in all large schools more money could be released for books since there would be a reduction at the county library headquarters in record keeping, correspondence and transportation. Service to the large schools would be through one teacher who would supervise the library room and have charge of all material issued by the county library. Under this arrangement there would be fewer losses of books and other material since the difficulties of checking records, often a problem in schools with a large number of teachers, would be minimized.

A few observations on the effect on the work of the library school department when a large district withdraws might be to the point. Following such a withdrawal county librarians report that invariably more books are released to the remaining schools in the system. The school leaving the service rarely receives for its permanent use even one per cent of all the school material handled in the county library. This amount is too small to have any effect on the activity of this department. Unless several large schools discontinue the service at one time operating expenses can not be reduced. The overhead costs

¹ School Code, section 6.531.

of operating a county library service are not directly affected by the withdrawal from service of one school, even if that school be a large one. Unless a staff member is dropped,—and this is not justified by the loss of one school,—salaries will be the same. Furthermore the book stock remains practically unchanged; therefore the same expenditures are required for binding, repairs and supplies. In cases where county libraries pay rent for their quarters, the item of overhead is obviously not affected.

In other words withdrawal affects only the book fund. Even though this is reduced the standard of service is maintained since the large school no longer has to be served and the books which it would otherwise use are released for circulation among the remaining schools. It has been pointed out in several instances that even better service accrued to the schools continuing their affiliation with the county library. It would seem therefore that the actual percentage of overhead is not of vital significance since it may automatically increase upon the withdrawal of a large school while the service to the remaining schools actually improves.

It cannot be denied, however, that from an administrative point of view, there are some advantages for the larger districts, in being independent of an outside agency, even when the service rendered has been efficient and economical. Some administrators feel that they lack control over all aspects of the work of their institutions when they must depend on the county library for books and other instructional materials. Without finding fault with the quality of the service received from the county library several large districts have undertaken to develop their libraries independently. With a full appreciation of the place of the library in the school program a professional service can be provided for teachers and pupils. This can be achieved only when there is a close regard for curriculum requirements as well as a knowledge of library aims and methods. The administrative advantage of complete control is no gain to the school unless full recognition is given to the need for a professional library service and unless responsibility is assumed for providing that service. Provision should be made for personnel, books, and equipment that will enable the library to coordinate its service with every activity of the school.

With proper equipment and housing, a trained librarian, and a sufficient appropriation for books, the larger schools can give their teachers and pupils a good library service. It has been pointed out that schools having withdrawn from the county library invariably allow more funds for their own libraries than the amount provided when contracting for county service. This expenditure ranges at the

outset from two to four times the amount apportioned to the county library. Regardless of the money spent, however, a satisfactory service is never possible without engaging as librarian someone properly instructed in the professional and routine work involved in library management.

In the future training for school principals will somewhere include instruction in school library administration with emphasis on the importance of a properly functioning book and informational service to teachers and to pupils and the costs required in maintaining such a service. Such instruction seems to be almost a necessity since it is now generally recognized that professional library service is fundamental to the modern school.

CHORAL SPEAKING

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Choral speaking, or poetry speaking, as it is sometimes called, is the recital of poetry by a choir of voices. As an activity it provides an appropriate means of expression for children. A verse choir may be compared with a singing choir; both emphasize rhythm, harmony, and working in unison by every member. While formalized instruction has put some restraint on self-expression, all children when they are given a little opportunity, gladly respond to the rhythm and swing of good poetry. Of course, those who have been most restrained will need the most leading out. Many educators consider verse speaking one of the most effective schemes for speech improvement which has been devised to overcome the limitations of a program where so much more emphasis is placed on silent reading than upon oral reading. Thus verse speaking serves two purposes; while it may be enjoyed as a recreation, at the same time it is a subtle tool for improving the quality of speech.

HISTORY OF CHORAL VERSE

Miss Marjorie Gullan, a teacher in Scotland who has written many helpful books upon the subject, is given credit for founding the present movement. She advises the teacher of verse speaking to begin with the very young children who may not be able to pronounce correctly all the words in a verse, and to invite them to join in the recitation and to accompany this speaking with such action as clapping the hands and keeping time with the feet. To young children the words are of no great importance; nonsense serves in this form of spoken expression as well as profound wisdom; for instance, "Hey diddle, diddle, the cat and the fiddle", and "Pease porridge hot".

When she works with older pupils, Miss Gullan uses a variety of more complex verses, always carefully selected for their beauty of sound and correctness of measure. This procedure is continued until the mature pupils are ready for advanced work and are able to study such intricate patterns as those represented by some of the Psalms. The Psalms lend themselves to choral response to a single leader in the chant, and many pleasing combinations of this idea will suggest themselves to the thoughtful teacher using this material.

In this advanced form verse speaking compares with antiphonal singing.

The movement spread rapidly, first in Europe, and then found its way to this country where teachers have accepted it readily and have taught its principles with remarkable results. Choir speaking is spreading rapidly to all sections of the country where teachers accept it as soon as they become aware of its value. Teachers who seek information on the conduct of such a choir will find it desirable to view, if possible, a demonstration group. They will find many references to the activity of verse speaking in current periodical literature, and numerous excellent texts on the subject have been published. A few of the many references are listed:

Fogerty, Elsie. *Speaking of Verse*. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1923

Gullan, Marjorie. *Spoken Poetry in the Schools*. Boston: The Expression Company, 1929

Gullan, Marjorie. *Choral Speaking*. Boston: The Expression Company, 1931

Gullan, Marjorie, and Gurrey, Percival. *Poetry Speaking for Children*. Boston: The Expression Company, 1931

Keppie, Elizabeth E. *The Teaching of Choric Speech*. Boston: The Expression Company, 1932

PRESENTATION AND MOTIVATION

Actual participation in a verse choir is the best motivation for a class. The appeal of a voice speaking choir for children is immediately shown by their eagerness to take part once they have experienced it. Those who have a native taste for poetry naturally like to recite it in unison with others; backward or shy pupils join this social activity with pleasure, losing their self-consciousness in the work of the group. Teachers find that even the most recalcitrant pupils are caught by the spirit of rhythm and join enthusiastically with the other pupils.

Experiencing this novel form of verse reading is a good introduction to poetry from the pupil's point of view. A selection may be written upon the blackboard, or mimeographed copies distributed to the class. Stress upon memory work should be omitted—memorizing comes unavoidably. The director allows the members of the class to recite with the material before them, choosing their own interpretation. Great care should be exercised lest the director influence the group by her own interpretation; hence the poem is not given to the class orally. The director must not be an organist,

using the members of the class as pipes, to be blown upon as she wishes, but rather a leader who guides them to originate moods and feelings. She may and should give examples of other similar poems. The director needs a great deal of preparation, for she should not falter nor hesitate. She must be ready to strike out at a fortunate lead from some student, give the class several examples related to the poem in question, but never express her feelings toward the poem they are studying. Some children will show more leadership in this form of expression than others, but all of them will be caught by the rhythm, and even shy children who would not conceivably recite by themselves, mingle their voices with the others, all restraint gone. Gradually these shy children establish self-confidence and frequently become the best leaders.

Thoughtful Choice of Readings. Readings must be thoughtfully chosen to achieve the purposes of choral speaking which are (1) to develop all children's love of rhythm, and to continue their training in this expression of fundamental emotions; (2) to give training in careful speech habits, such as articulation, resonance and flexibility of tone, inflection, diction, volume, and emphasis; (3) to overcome self consciousness by participation in the group activity; (4) to teach correct poetic forms.

The astute teacher will make selections of poetry with the greatest care, knowing that here lies the secret of success. The age level, local interests, and predominant sex of a given class offer clues to the kind of verse which should be chosen. Should the class be all boys or all girls, the verses selected can be particularly suited to their needs. Sea chanties intrigue children of the plains, and ballads of the buffalo and bronze man find favor with coastal dwellers. Nonsense rhymes please young students, while they give opportunity to concentrate upon accent of words, lines, and stanzas.

Some young pupils can, however, memorize even the more advanced material as rapidly as their older school mates, often to the astonishment of teachers and parents. Since this is true, teachers need have no fear of different grades working together. In fact, a delightful blending of voices may be secured by this means which will allow a greater variety of selections.

Children are no longer made unhappy by the drudgery of memorizing, because if one child forgets a line, the others go on with the recitation, and after a few rehearsals the poem is known by the entire group. Stress upon the rhythm makes this ready recall of words possible. As he repeats the words with his companions about him, no child has any difficulty in memorizing. Instead of dreading the day when a certain number of arbitrarily assigned lines will be called

for, the children anxiously await the next lesson of the speaking choir. Many children who have developed a distaste for poetry by previous unfortunate experiences, soon learn to have a real appreciation for it, and unhesitatingly join in the choir.

Encouragement of Rhythm. Since Miss Gullan's early attempts to interest school people in the development of rhythm, the movement has gained much headway. Rhythmic dancing and activities are a common part of our physical activity programs. All young people are evidencing more freedom of action, more natural enjoyment in the presence of rhythmic forms such as music, than ever before. The effect of self-expression in releasing creative activity is already apparent in modern society. The increased power of voices resulting from speaking together gives an added force to the rhythm and swing of the poem. The pleasing and effective result of choral speech answers the objection of those who say, "Why speak together? Isn't poetry beautiful even when read alone, and silently?"

Training Speech Habits. Great need for more training in correct speech is evident. What could be better, then, than to join with others in speaking, under circumstances where precise and rapid articulation, correct pronunciation, and range and melody of tone are stressed? Pleasant speaking voices, which in this machine age have largely become lost as volume of tone is cultivated at the expense of more desirable qualities, can be regained in part, at least, through choral speaking. Manifestly, participants in verse speaking performances must not allow their speech to become careless because of the need for harmony. The members must be trained in speech and voice, for speaking in unison demands the best phrasing, tonal quality, and clear, well-formed sounds. This training of course should not come at first, but only when the children have recognized their own need for it.

Overcoming Self-Consciousness. When one person undertakes an activity, he alone must initiate the action, carry it through to completion, and make a fitting conclusion if he is to attain any measure of success. If the activity is speaking, he must perform before an audience. Gazing upon a sea of faces is enough to render the solitary beginner speechless. But when a group proposes action, the single performer now has companions on either side. As the group speaks, the audience may be watching any one of the number. Each child consoles himself that his companions are the ones observed. Then, too, he is in the midst of his comrades, and their presence gives him faith in his own abilities. Even extremely shy and timid people are led out, and express themselves happily, once they lose awareness of themselves in the action of a group. It is like the

attitude of the single soldier who knows the people are cheering the parade.

So with the verse speaking choir. Backward children, or those inclined to be self-conscious, are drawn out, and so enjoy their heritage of good poetry. They begin slowly at first, until they are sure that no one is giving them special notice, then they enter wholeheartedly into the activity, lending their voices with great success, to make up the well rounded harmony of the group.

This healthy, self-assertiveness which children gain in this way remains with them to help them in many ways and many times. A sense of assurance and ease before an audience, founded upon a solid background of confidence, is all too frequently lacking in otherwise cultured people of today. There are, of course, other methods of training which give this poise, but choral speaking offers an effective way to develop many pupils at once, while allowing them to enjoy their period of development.

Teaching Poetic Forms. While the teaching of poetic form holds a lesser place in our present day schools than formerly, the continual emphasis on the importance of rhythm makes it impossible for students to remain unaware of the mechanics of verse. Not all students will give it any special attention, but those who may desire to compose or produce poetry themselves will have the correct forms so embedded in their consciousness by accompanying the spoken word with some physical action, that the correct form will be inherent in this expression thereafter.

The verse speaking choir has many of the advantages of the singing choir and its performances are arranged with less difficulty. They call for less equipment since piano accompanists and musical scores are unnecessary. The members are not required to follow tune, and in general, the requirements are more suited to the limitations of adolescent voices. On the other hand, participants in choral speaking can center attention upon rhythm, inflexion, and shading of tone, and thus add to the intrinsic beauty of selections especially adapted to their use. Occasionally the volume produced by numerous voices approximates some tones from an organ. This requires delicate and careful practice, and good judgment of harmony on the part of the performers.

SPEAKING CHOIR IN ONTARIO JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

In Ontario Junior High School the speaking choir fills a long felt want. Because of the fact that most of the pupils have a rural background and tradition, more training is needed perhaps to lead them away from their native shyness than would be true in a distinctly

urban group. Parent Teacher and other adult groups which have heard the choir have praised its achievement and have given it their complete approval.

Arrangements were made for one class to entertain with samples of its work during assembly. This class was composed entirely of girls, a fact which no doubt influenced the type of material presented. The numbers they presented were: "Poor Old Jonathan Bing," "Foreboding," "The Owl and the Pussy-Cat," "The Farmer," and "The Mysterious Cat."

Mechanics of a Recital. One member of the choir acted as announcer, and another gave the starting cue by timing her beginning ten slow counts from the announcer's last word. This responsibility was given to a child who had an excellent sense of timing and rhythm, and a definite feeling for poetry.

The director was not present upon the platform with the choir. This gives the choir an added sense of responsibility, and develops their self-assurance. From the point of view of the audience, the undirected group makes an excellent impression because the domination of an adult leader is not felt. In this way a cooperative spirit is fostered, and is aroused and built up.

The choir was attired in simple choristers' costumes. These costumes interested the audience, yet did not arouse divergent impressions in their minds as the usual varied clothing of school children might have done. Such uniform costuming relieved the children with meager wardrobes of any embarrassment. The psychological mechanics were admirable; once they were dressed as a choir, the members immediately felt themselves to be a choir. Their attention was centered upon the business at hand. Playfulness which would not be out of place in regular clothes seemed unfitting in the changed attire. Awkwardness of arms and legs, so noticeable in school children, was mercifully masked so that both the audience and the chorus can concentrate upon the poetry to be spoken. Grouped in a wide semicircle, the heads of the girls ascended outwardly, but the hems of the garments were kept at a level line at the shoe tops.

The theatrical effect was heightened by darkening the house and lighting the stage with harmonious colors. This preparation made presentation more of a ceremony, and the members of the choir were stimulated by the setting. This arrangement is not always possible when schools lack the equipment, but should be provided wherever available. Ontario is fortunate to have very adequate facilities for staging any type of activity.

Results of the Performance. This one program motivated the preparation of a series of pieces, presented at assemblies, and gave

zest to difficult arrangements. Used with discrimination and intelligence, such a program, while an enjoyable enterprise for the pupils, also proves rich in learning experience. Choral speaking proved to be a popular part of assembly programs in Ontario, and some of the benefits received by the chorus, such as love of rhythm, knowledge of correct speech, and introduction to good poetry, were shared by the student body.

As the choirs succeeded, the members grew in poise, charm, and grace. Their complete enjoyment, the satisfaction which comes from the ability to give pleasure to an audience, and their confidence and self-reliance is evident to all. Extension of this work is planned in Ontario, and it is hoped and expected that more poetry speaking classes will be initiated in schools throughout the state. As soon as the teachers become aware of the possibilities in this field, the writer believes that every school will have at least one organization. Suggested material which has proved suitable for junior high school age:

Blanding, Don. *Vagabond's House*. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1928

"Baby Street"

"Aloha"

"Sea Butterflies"

Harrington, Mildred. *Ring-A-Round*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930

"The Mysterious Cat"

"The Duel"

"The Swing Song"

Teasdale, Sara. *Rainbow Gold*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1922

"Time, You Old Gypsy Man"

Anthologies containing appropriate material:

Fifty New Poems for Children. New York: D. Appleton & Company, 1924

Banton, Josephine. *Poems for the Children's Hour*. Springfield, Massachusetts: Milton Bradley, 1927

Thompson, Blanche. *Silver Pennies*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1925

RECREATION, A HOME TOWN PROBLEM

WILL E. WILEY, *District Superintendent, Whittier Public Schools*

It took the jolt of the depression to awaken most people to the need for training in the worthy use of leisure. In those dismal years, twelve million American men and women were faced with this problem in an acute form. Even now, with increased employment, the problem remains, since the great forces of this industrial era have decreed that hours of leisure shall increase, by shortening the working day and the working week.

Experience has shown that unguided leisure is likely to become a public liability and has led to the general belief that the provision for wholesome recreation should become a public responsibility. Many feel that recreation should be elevated to a place beside education as a democratic function. Properly coordinated with the educational system, the constructive use of leisure might become a potent force for progress in our American civilization.

LEISURE ACTIVITIES OF AMERICAN ADULTS

Figures showing how Americans spend their money and leisure always suggest dissipation. To the average man, leisure seems to mean going to a dance, taking a trip, going to the movies, playing the races or spending money in some other way. Commercial interests have used all their ingenuity to foster this tendency. Some of the recreation they have provided is constructive. Much of it is idle dissipation, if not destructive. In altogether too many cases the people become spectators rather than participants in the activity.

New trends in the recreational life of the American people need to be brought about. This is basically a problem in education and guidance, for the individual must be stimulated to undertake new cultural interests. If this can be done, for the adult it will mean the renewing of life; for the child it will mean the acquisition of a fuller life. Society is beginning to see this. Individuals are beginning to see that through the proper use of leisure they have the opportunity for free, personal growth for which they have always longed. Their daily tasks may tend to reduce them to the role of machine-tenders, but leisure offers them the opportunity for personal development. A cry goes up from the people for guidance into this promised land where, through companionship, through cultural activities, through wholesome play, life may become richer and more meaningful.

Slowly the school has been responding to this demand. The first indication of response was the change from calisthenics to games for the pupils. Then club work was introduced along with an increased emphasis upon the cultural offerings. And now the adult education program is spreading.

A PROGRAM BASED UPON NEEDS OF INDIVIDUALS

To be effective the program must be built about the needs of the individual. The problem will be different for each age group, for each social and economic group, and for each community. Fortunately most of the recreational needs of people can be met on a limited budget. These fundamental needs might be classified under five headings as follows:

1. The need for physical activity
2. The need for companionship
3. The need for relaxation
4. The need for creative outlets
5. The need for the exercise of cultural appreciations.

Over against the above needs might be contrasted the expenditures of the American people for recreation in the year of 1930.

Vacation travel (at home and abroad).....	\$4,750,000,000
Commercial amusements.....	2,250,000,000
Pleasure use of automobile.....	1,750,000,000
Games, sports, outdoor life.....	1,875,000,000
Leisure time groups, clubs, etc.....	1,375,000,000

It would be impossible to say how wisely the above amounts were spent or what returns were secured. The difficulty is that adequate study of the problem has not been made. Questions on what the average citizen does with his leisure and whether or not he finds opportunity to satisfy his creative instinct or the means to give outlet to wholesome self-expression can not be answered until many careful studies have been made. In the meantime, any studies that throw light upon the problem should be welcome.

In the past, recreation has been promoted primarily by the schools and often has been limited to the child's need for physical activity. Three-fourths of the communities of the United States do not yet assume responsibility for summer playgrounds during a time when schools are not in session. Some schools and communities are facing the problem together and in various ways are encouraging their young people to use their leisure constructively.

¹ Jesse F. Steiner, *Americans at Play*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1933.

STUDY OF LEISURE ACTIVITIES OF YOUTH IN A CALIFORNIA COMMUNITY

There is a growing weight of opinion that the wise use of leisure is a matter of education and is one of the major responsibilities of the public schools. In response to this belief, a study was made of the leisure activities of boys and girls in the Whittier Schools. There were 1,053 cases, ranging in age from eight and one-half years to sixteen years. Fifty different questions were asked and the replies have been grouped under a few main headings.

Where Did Children Play? The first general topic dealt with the problem of where the children played. In most communities there is a demand for large parks and recreation centers. In Whittier there are two small parks and eight school play areas, so spaced that few children need to walk more than one-half mile to reach a playground. The answers indicated, however, that 61 per cent of the children play in their own back yards, 42 per cent play in vacant lots, 41 per cent play in the streets, while only 37 per cent play on the school grounds or parks.

Whittier has been carrying on a summer playground program for a number of years, yet of the children included in the survey, only 20 per cent attended regularly, while another 10 per cent attended once in a while. There are a number of implications for the community in the questions raised by these percentages. Why should the streets, vacant lots and back yards be more popular with children than summer playgrounds? Is it a matter of parental indifference? Was the program offered at fault? Is the experience of this community typical? It is certain that the schools will not be content with a 20 per cent attendance if they take over the summer recreation program.

What Did Children Play? The next general topic in the study had to do with the play activities of the children. Baseball was the outstanding favorite with 46 per cent of the children voting it the game they like to play best. Football took second place with 18 per cent of the votes. Tennis was third with 11 per cent. Basketball was in fourth place with 9 per cent. Kick ball was next with 6 per cent, while hide-go-seek was the favorite game of 3 per cent of the children. A number of other games were given scattering votes. With the exception of tennis, none of these activities provide recreational activity for any considerable part of the adult life.

When the children were asked to indicate what games they liked to watch best, the baseball fell into second place with a score of 34 per cent. Football took first place, with 45 per cent of the chil-

dren voting it the most interesting game to watch. Basketball, tennis and volleyball followed in the order named.

While 58 per cent of these children said they could swim and 56 per cent of them said they hiked often, neither of these activities had more than a few scattering votes in the popularity contest. It is probable that the children do not think of these activities when they are thinking of games.

Indoor games, such as checkers, were reported as being enjoyed by 80 per cent of this group, and 88 per cent said they like group games better than playing alone. It was of more significance to the teachers, however, to learn that 12 per cent preferred to play alone, and that 20 per cent reported that they did not have a pal with whom they played regularly. The need for companionship was listed above as a fundamental need yet many parents do not understand this need of their children.

Where Did Children Go Outside Their Own Community for Recreation? The next general topic dealt with activities that carried the children outside their home community. The study was limited to trips that lasted a week or more. It was found that 29 per cent spent a week or more at the beach, 27 per cent spent a week in the mountains, and 16 per cent spent a week in some organized camp. When duplications were eliminated, it was found that more than 50 per cent of the children spent their entire vacation in Whittier. This again points to the fact that recreation is a home town problem.

There are many recreational activities that are usually provided by the home. It was found that 52 per cent of these children had parties in their homes. Dances outside their homes were attended by 14 per cent. The age of the group would make this seem a rather high percentage.

How Much Did the Children Depend on Commercial Recreation? The large place that is being filled by commercial recreation becomes evident from the figures on movie attendance. Whittier is traditionally a very conservative town with several very strict religious groups included in the population. It was a surprise to find, however, that 18 per cent of the group never attended the movies. Another 10 per cent attended only once in two weeks. Three fourths of the children might be called movie fans for 48 per cent of them attended once a week, 19 per cent attended twice a week, and 5 per cent attended three or more times per week.

The above figures are not markedly different from those found in many other studies. They do re-enforce the conclusion that as yet parents and schools have not solved the movie problem for children.

What Groups Did the Children Join? In many ways the most interesting topic covered in this study had to do with membership in groups that have adult supervision and leadership. The problems growing out of the great drifting population are among the most serious with which the United States has to contend. Memberships that tend to tie people to a given community, that make them feel that they belong, can contribute much to the social health of communities as well as to the mental health of the individuals. Children need the mental security that comes from belonging to groups even more than adults need it.

It was gratifying to find that 75 per cent of the boys and girls attended church or Sunday school. Of this group, 39 per cent had also attended the Vacation Church School conducted for a month each summer.

Whittier has an active Y. M. C. A. which is also sponsoring the Girls Reserve program in the community. Three hundred of the boys and girls, or approximately 29 per cent, belong to some group sponsored by the Y. The Girl Scout movement is next in popularity with a membership of 12 per cent of the group. The Boy Scouts have enrolled 10 per cent and the Camp Fire Group 2 per cent. One hundred and forty pupils held memberships in various other clubs. The questionnaire disclosed that many of the children belong to two or three groups. A great deal of satisfaction could be taken in the above figures were it not for the fact that 501 of the pupils belonged to no group or only to a Sunday school class. The Y. M. C. A. and other of the character building agencies are accepting this as a distinct challenge and are making every effort to reach these children.

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF THE SCHOOL

The above figures do not give an answer to the question as to what part the schools should play in directing the various recreational activities of children. They do suggest, however, that much more could and should be done. The school as the one institution that contacts all the children is in a strategic position to supplement the work of other groups and fill in the gaps. Obviously, the youth of today should be taught to use leisure more constructively. The school should give guidance through increased emphasis upon such curricular activities as music, art, library instruction, and dramatic production. Many children could find lifetime interests and hobbies through these constructive, recreational activities.

More attention could be given in most schools to those sports that carry over into the after school life of the adult. The need for

physical exercise remains after school days are over, but most of the games taught in school are not suited to out-of-school conditions. Education is the surest method which mankind has for directing its own course, but education must be organized and systematically presented in order to be effective. Shall the school assume a larger responsibility in the field of recreation than it has in the past? Should guidance in the worthy use of leisure be elevated to a place alongside the more traditional types of training given by the school? Present needs seem to indicate a positive answer and an emphatic one.

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